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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION.

THE object of this series is double. In the first place it is to supply in a compact form to managers, clerks, and agents of commercial firms in all parts of the globe accurate information about the commerce, resources, and needs of the principal countries of the world; the second, and equally important, purpose of the series is to supply to teachers and students in technical schools, colleges, and commercial Universities throughout the British Empire and the United States of America what we may perhaps call guide-books to the wealth of modern nations. No intelligent observer of commercial progress in Germany during the last decade can have failed to mark an equally rapid and simultaneous progress in the descriptive literature of industry and commerce. Every University seems to have entered into the competition, and in Germany, at any rate, a teacher of practical economics is seldom at a loss for a book; he is more likely to be embarrassed by profusion than by scarcity. In America the production of monographs upon commercial subjects has been enormous, but these monographs, whatever their scientific merits—and they often exhibit a most laborious research—are not often suited to the uses of commercial instruction. Still less are they likely to deserve or win a place on the miserable bookshelf which too often satisfies a great mercantile or manufacturing house.

It is no doubt a mistake for the manufacturer of books to preach to the manufacturer of things; but the best writers on economic questions are those who combine with practical instincts a broad and scientific grasp of commerce and a power of exposition. Such writers do not lecture a business man on the conduct of his business. But is it not also a mistake for the captains of industry to shut themselves up in their offices, assume pontifical airs, and refuse to

listen to the stories of the progress made in other countries and to descriptions of other methods than their own? The shrewdness of the average English commercial traveller does not always make up for his ignorance. His knowledge of men does not always make up for his contempt of books. His readiness to appreciate concrete economies and inventions is admirable, but he would do still better had he the will and the opportunity to study descriptive economics, and to draw lessons from the abstract precepts and principles of the writers and thinkers who have devoted themselves to discovering the mechanism of the production and distribution of wealth.

After all, as Mr. John Morley once told the Midland Institute at Birmingham, long before the establishment of a commercial University (with a Chair of Commerce) in that city, the best thing that can happen to a young man of average abilities is that, after following the elementary and higher education in his own town, he should, 'at the earliest convenient moment, be taught to earn his own living.' To earn a living by honest work should be the elementary aim of every good citizen; but let the wage-earning and the profit-seeking be preceded by a training which will make his daily work an intelligible part of an intelligible whole, and help him to continue his education through life, to unravel bit by bit the baffling mysteries of Nature's laws and man's disobedience.

There is probably no form of literature more generally read than biography. The success of others is an incentive to action. We love to read the lives of great men. We learn from their failures and successes. The budding politician follows the career of the statesman. The young man entering a business or profession is encouraged by 'men of invention and industry.' The spirit of rivalry and emulation is strong and honourable, and it exists between communities and nations as well as between individuals. Happily, nations as well as individuals gain by the inventions, the industry, and the wealth, of their competitors; but the benefit would be far greater if there were more willingness to learn. 'Made in Germany' should be not a bogie, but a stimulus. Nations of invention and industry should be vehicles of instruction. Their successes are worthy of study and emulation. We must watch the developments of commercial policy, says Lord Rosebery. We must study commerce, says Mr. Chamberlain, in Universities founded for that purpose. Mr. Bryce, who knows as much of higher education

as any living statesman, concurs. Mr. Carnegie, the prince of manufacturers, is also the Mæcenas of commercial education.

The object, then, of this commercial series is to provide guidance by describing the modern conditions under which the great nations of the world are competing for its markets, exchanging their products, utilizing their own agricultural and mineral resources, and, as they progress in wealth and population, making ever new and larger demands upon the products of other countries.

The commercial series begins with descriptions of Great Britain, India, Japan, and the United States of America. It is hoped in time to include all the principal countries of the Old and New World. Each, it is hoped, will have its special value to traders, whether they are already engaged in trade with a particular country or whether they are on the look-out for new markets. Large importing and exporting merchants should welcome the advent of small and compact volumes containing statistical and other information for which they would have to search through many blue-books and consular reports. An immense amount of time would be saved by boys and young men who are entering importing and exporting houses if they could first master the contents of a book like that of Mr. Harold Cox on Great Britain, or of Mr. Tozer on India, and we believe that such books will be much more useful to the teacher than the small works upon elementary economics which were offered with such unsatisfactory results to the youth of the last generation. What is the good of driving into the minds of boys or girls of fourteen, or sixteen, or eighteen, abstract definitions of value or abstract theories of exchange? They would be far better engaged in arithmetic or Euclid, where they have counters, figures, and diagrams to help them. For the same reason, theology often proved a better training for the mind than the old formal logic, because it had the advantage of a close relation to living controversy. We do not in the least depreciate the value of political economy (it should be a principal instrument in the higher education of our citizens); we are simply discussing how it should be taught, how it should be made most interesting, and how it should be made most useful. Minds exceptionally well informed, or with exceptional powers of abstract reasoning, may no doubt be given theories 'neat,' but even then it would be better for the theories to be diluted with copious illustra-

tion. Let the mind first be fed with facts, with a description, for example, of the economic framework of a nation, its agriculture, its mineral resources, its manufactures, its railways, its harbours, banks, currency, weights and measures, and foreign trade. The means, also, by which it raises its revenue and protects or obstructs its commerce should be made known. If the governing classes, the manufacturing classes, and the journalists of the great nations of the world were acquainted with the records of their own economic progress, and of their neighbours, they would be able, even if they had never committed to memory a definition of marginal utility or of quasi-rent or of the law of diminishing returns, to avoid blunders which cause year by year vast and irretrievable losses to the whole world. It is satisfactory to observe that the new London University, in which is incorporated the London School of Economics, has adopted in its curriculum for the faculty of economics and political science (including commerce and industry) the very idea upon which we are now laying so much stress—that is to say, the advantage of applied over abstract economics. In the first year students are expected to make elementary applications of statistical methods, to study the main outlines of the organization of industry and commerce, and to devote themselves to commercial geography. In the second and third years they are expected to acquaint themselves with public finance and with constitutional or commercial law; they may take up banking and currency, or the organization of transport, or international trade, or systems of insurance, or the public administration of a particular country. A school similar to the London School of Economics is now being built up in New York, and there is little doubt that the main outlines of the curriculum devised by the London University under the guidance of many distinguished men and women, who form its Senate, will be more and more widely adopted in those great centres of the world's commerce which must inevitably become also centres of commercial education.

F. W. H.

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BRITISH INDIA AND ITS TRADE.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL FEATURES AND POPULATION.

Boundaries—Three regions of India proper—Burma—Meteorology—Area—Population—Race, Caste, and Religion—Occupations—Languages.

Boundaries.—India proper has the shape of an irregular triangle, bounded on the west by the Arabian Sea, on the east by the Bay of Bengal, and on the north by the mountain mass of the Himalayas nd its southern offshoots. It extends from 8° to 37° north latitude, nd is, therefore, partly within the tropics, and partly within the emperate zone. Included under India administratively is the large trip of territory called Burma, lying on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, and bounded on the east by China, French Indo-China, and Siam. The coast-line of India and Burma stretches for nore than 4,000 miles, but, as will be seen later, the number of mportant sea-ports is small.

Three Regions.—India proper falls into three clearly-defined egions, possessing great varieties of soil and climate. The first of hese comprises the southern part of the stupendous Himalayan system, most of which is beyond the British frontier. Through this great barrier merchandise finds its way over high passes, which have for centuries served as trade routes into Eastern Turkestan and Tibet on the north, into Afghanistan on the west, and into China and Siam on the east. The Himalayas perform a valuable function physically by collecting and storing up rain-water for distribution over the tropical plains below. The upper parts of the mountains are of course barren, but lower down are forest-lands and rich soil.

Of far more importance economically is the second region, comprising the wide plains watered by the great Himalayan rivers, the Indus, the Ganges, and the Brahmaputra, with their tributaries. The Indo-Gangetic plain, which extends 1,700 miles across Northern India, hardly anywhere rises more than 1,000 feet above sea-level. Within this region lie Bengal, Assam, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, and Sind, together with certain Native States. This vast unbroken alluvial tract includes the richest and most populous parts of India. But a portion of Rajputana and Sind consists of desert tracts.

The third region includes the peninsula commonly called the Deccan. Within it are the Central Provinces, Bombay, Madras, and Berar, as well as the great Native States of Mysore and Hyderabad, and the Mahratta and other feudatory States of Central and Southern India. This region is enclosed on all sides by mountains. On the north are the Aravalli and Satpura Mountains, and the Vindhyas, which range from 1,500 to 4,000 feet, and form the northern wall of the irregular Deccan tableland. The Vindhyas are broken up by cultivated valleys and broad plains, and are covered in many parts by forests. The peninsular plateau is bounded by the Eastern and Western Ghats, the former with an average elevation of 1,500 feet, and the latter of 3,000 feet. The rainfall of the southern slopes of the Vindhyas is carried by the Nerbudda and Tapti into the Arabian Sea, while the drainage of the central plateau, prevented by the Western Ghats from flowing westwards, is borne by the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Kistna, and the Cauvery through openings in the Eastern Ghats into the Bay of Bengal. The south-west or Malabar coast, shut in by mountains, is more primitive and less progressive than the south-east or Coromandel coast, which is easily accessible by land and sea, and has rapidly advanced in commerce.

Burma.—Burma is a region apart, and essentially different, from India proper. It slopes southward from the Himalayan system, and is traversed by great rivers, of which the Irrawaddy, navigable beyond Bhamo, is most important commercially. Upper Burma is mountainous, with a few alluvial plains. Lower Burma is traversed by mountain chains, but the flat delta of the Irrawaddy is very productive.

Meteorology.—Climatic conditions are commercially important

in relation to the requirements of the natives. Meteorologically, India proper falls into two main divisions—the area of the Indo-Gangetic plain, outside the tropics, and the Deccan, within the tropics. The special and dominant feature of Indian weather is the alternation of the monsoons. The north-east monsoon period includes a cold-weather season in January and February, and a hot-weather season in March, April, and May. The south-west monsoon, which sets in from the south on the Bombay and Bengal coasts in June, bears northwards vast quantities of water evaporated from the Indian Ocean. The clouds discharge a large part of their moisture in passing over the hot plains from June to October, and this period constitutes the rainy season, on which the success or failure of agriculture primarily depends. The south-west retreating monsoon prevails during November and December. The monsoons affect differently different parts of India. In January and February Southern India has fine weather, while in Northern India there is heavy rain in the Punjab and the submontane tracts, and very light rain in the plains. The influence of the extensive snow-clad Himalayas and of the plateau of Baluchistan and Persia, chiefly felt during the north-east monsoon, produces land-winds, great dryness of the air, and a large diurnal range of temperature during the dry season, December to May. During the hot weather the interior of the peninsula and Northern India is greatly heated compared with Assam and the coast districts, and, while intense heat prevails everywhere, the southern provinces are cooler than those in the river plains, owing to the elevation of the southern plateau. In Southern India, indeed, the temperature is almost uniform throughout the year. The winter rainfall is less than one inch over the whole peninsula. During the hot season it is small over the interior, but exceeds five inches in Bengal and the west coast districts, and is greatest in Assam. The rainy season —June to October—is marked by great uniformity, but small diurnal range, of temperature, the variation throughout India being only from 80° to 90° Fahr. November and December are usually dry, cool, and cloudless in Northern India, but more or less cloudy and wet in Southern India.

The south-west monsoon currents distribute their rain to every part of India, though very unequally. The southern spurs of the Himalayas, overlooking the Assam Valley, receive more than 500

inches a year, the highest measured rainfall in the world. Excessive rainfall also occurs in the Western Ghats. There is an area of constant rainfall, which may be said to include roughly Eastern Bengal, Assam, part of the Central Provinces, and the coast of the Western Ghats, while there is also an area of constant drought, including Sind, West Rajputana, and the West Punjab, where the annual rainfall is five inches or less, and crops can be secured only by irrigation. In the rest of India the rainfall is uncertain and drought is possible. Hence may arise violent fluctuations in the annual produce of agriculture and more or less widespread famine. These meteorological features have a very important bearing on the exporting and purchasing powers of the people. When the monsoon is deficient generally, the failure of rainfall is most marked through the belt where the rainfall averages from 10 to 30 inches. The recent famines (1897-8, and 1900-1) embraced a very extensive area, comprising the Bombay Deccan and the Central Provinces—both of which were ravaged each time—the North-Western Provinces, part of the Punjab, Bengal, and Madras, and the Native States of Rajputana and Central India, Baroda and Gujarat.

Burma falls within the torrid zone. Lower Burma and the north of Upper Burma have regular seasons, but the centre is liable to drought. In Rangoon December and January are cool; February, March, April, and November, dry and hot; May to October, rainy. The Irrawaddy Delta and the Pegu Plain have a rainfall of 190 inches, while the rainfall on the Arakan coast is even heavier.

Area.—The area of India (including Native States) is usually given as 1,560,000 square miles, a territory larger than the European Continent, excluding Russia. But if territories more or less under British influence be included, the area may be taken roughly as 1,700,000 square miles.

Population.—According to the census of 1901 the population of India (including Native States) was 294,000,000, as against 287,000,000 in 1891, and 254,000,000 in 1881, prior to which date there was no synchronous census. It will be seen that 1891 showed an increase of 33,000,000 over 1881, but Upper Burma, annexed in 1886, accounts for 3,000,000 of this total. The increase of 1901 over 1891 was 7,000,000, or only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; but this slight rate of growth was probably due in some degree to the disastrous consequences of the extremely severe famines which afflicted India

during the last five years of the decennial period. Taking into account the areas beyond the frontier of India, we may safely say that a population of over 300,000,000 has to be supplied with foreign goods. India has few large towns, and only about 5 per cent. of the people live in towns of more than 20,000 inhabitants. In some regions, as in the Lower Ganges Valley, the pressure on the soil is very severe. In other regions, however, there are large tracts of cultivable, but uncultivated, soil. Government irrigation works are opening up new fields to cultivators in the Punjab and elsewhere.

Race, Caste, and Religion.—The people of India belong to different races. They form, not one nation, but a group of nations. On the joint basis of race, religion, and occupation has arisen that striking characteristic of Indian life, the caste system, which, originating among the Hindus, has spread to other religious bodies. The two great religious bodies of India are the Hindus and the Mohammedans, the former of whom constituted in 1891 about 72 per cent., and the latter 20 per cent., of the total population. These differences are not without commercial importance, for in India religion and caste largely govern the food and dress of the people. A small sect, the Parsees, numbering under 100,000, is noteworthy as including the most enterprising commercial people in India. The number of Europeans in India is about 170,000, most of whom are natives of the United Kingdom in the civil and military employment of the Government.

Occupations.—At least 61 per cent. of the people depend directly or a living on agriculture. The cultivator is the unit of the social system. The ryots (raiyats) or peasant farmers are hardworking, but the returns to their labour are small. Their subsistence is meagre, and they spend little on their scanty clothing. Complicated and expensive agricultural machinery is not needed for a system of *petite culture*, and in any case it would be beyond the cultivator's present purchasing power. Besides those directly engaged in agriculture, there are the artisans and menials of the villages who depend at least in part on the produce of the fields—smiths, shoemakers, weavers, potters, and others. Only in a few large towns are considerable numbers engaged in factories and kindred industries. The table on p. 6 shows the occupations of the people according to the census of 1891, when a new classification was adopted.

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY PROVINCES AND STATES, AND INTO URBAN AND RURAL, ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION OR MEANS OF LIVELIHOOD.*

Order of Occupation or Means of Livelihood.	India.	Number of Persons supported by each Order.			
		By Territory.		By Constitution.	
		British Provinces.	Native States.	Urban.	Rural.
I. Administration by State or by local bodies	5,600,153	3,839,643	1,760,510	1,434,356	4,165,797
II. Defence, military and naval ..	664,422	334,193	330,229	470,950	193,472
III. Service of Foreign States	500,030	38,179	461,851	226,437	273,593
IV. Provision and care of cattle	3,645,849	2,472,872	1,172,977	223,392	3,422,457
V. Agriculture ..	171,735,390	135,504,696	36,230,694	4,667,663	167,067,727
VI. Personal, household, or sanitary services	11,220,072	8,505,420	2,714,652	2,556,334	8,663,738
VII. Provision of food and drink ..	14,575,593	12,120,669	2,454,924	2,906,597	11,668,996
VIII. Provision of light, firing, and forage	3,522,257	2,887,525	634,732	572,801	2,949,456
IX. Construction of buildings ..	1,437,739	1,113,633	324,106	509,999	927,740
X. Construction of vehicles and vessels	146,508	135,627	10,881	55,258	91,250
XI. Provision of supplementary requirements	1,155,267	991,334	163,933	417,295	737,972
XII. Provision of textile fabrics and dress	12,611,267	9,655,213	2,956,054	2,857,413	9,753,854
XIII. Provision of metals and precious stones	3,821,433	2,897,046	924,387	896,586	2,924,847
XIV. Provision of glass, pottery, and stoneware ..	2,360,623	1,669,019	691,604	250,098	2,110,525
XV. Provision of wood, cane, matting, &c.	4,293,012	3,319,170	973,842	651,371	3,641,641
XVI. Provision of drugs, dyes, and gums	391,575	319,981	71,594	97,510	294,065
XVII. Provision of leather, hides, and horns	3,285,307	2,224,604	1,060,703	459,051	2,826,256
XVIII. Commerce	4,685,579	3,093,056	1,592,523	1,425,179	3,260,400
XIX. Transport and storage	3,952,993	3,242,281	710,712	1,192,456	2,760,537
XX. Learned and artistic professions ..	5,672,191	4,386,725	1,285,466	1,506,318	4,165,873
XXI. Sport and amusements	141,180	98,485	42,695	25,684	115,496
XXII. Earthwork and general labour ..	25,468,017	18,414,315	7,053,702	2,666,241	22,801,776
XXIII. Undefined and disreputable means of livelihood ..	1,562,981	704,801	858,180	242,097	1,320,884
XXIV. Means of livelihood independent of work	4,773,993	3,204,465	1,569,528	940,090	3,833,903
Total	287,223,431	221,172,952	66,050,479	27,251,176	259,972,255

* In this return no distinction is drawn between those who work and those whom they support by their work. The whole population depending upon the occupation is included, in order to indicate the respective sustaining power of the different orders.

Languages.—The number of languages and dialects is extremely great. By far the most important, from the standpoint of numbers, are Hindi and Bengali and their varieties, while Telugu, Marathi, Punjabi, Tamil, Gujarati, Kanarese, Uriya, and Burmese, come next. Gujarati is the great commercial language of Western India, and is used by Parsees and Mussulman traders. Urdu, or Hindustani, a Hindi language with an admixture of Persian and Arabic, is the most widely-spoken language and the most generally useful. It is spoken through the greater part of India by educated people. Marwari is the tongue of the Marwaris of Rajputana, who trade all over India, and have extensive banking connections and brokerage dealings in both Calcutta and Bombay, but they do business in other languages. English is taught everywhere, and is widely understood in the chief cities.

CHAPTER II.

SOURCES OF WEALTH.

Agriculture—Seasons—Chief agricultural products—Export crops—Mineral resources (coal, salt, gold, etc.)—Industrial resources—Growth of cotton and jute mills.

Agriculture.—The chief source of wealth in India is agriculture. The great export staples, on which India's whole trade depends, are mainly agricultural. The area of the British provinces in the last non-famine year, 1898-99, was distributed as follows:

	Acres.
Net area sown with crops	196,488,000
Cultivable waste	106,293,000
Forests	64,754,000
Fallow	41,200,000
Uncultivable	136,567,000
	545,302,000

In most provinces more than one crop a year can be obtained from the fields, so that roughly 25 per cent. may be added to the crop area given above. An extraordinary diversity of physical conditions enables India to produce almost any known crop.

Seasons.—The hot, rainy, and cold seasons have each characteristic crops, so that the cultivator has usually two, and sometimes three, harvests a year. In the regions having two periods of rainfall (the Punjab, North-Western Provinces, Eastern Rajputana, and Madras) there are two well-marked crops—the spring or *rabi* crop, and the autumn or *kharif* crop. In Bengal, oilseeds, pulses, etc., are reaped in the spring, early rice crops in September, and the main rice harvest in November and December.

Chief Agricultural Products.—These may be thus classified:

(*a*) *Food Crops:* Rice, wheat, millets, gram and other pulses, barley, maize, sugar, spices, etc.

(*b*) *Oilseeds:* Linseed, rape and mustard, sesamum (til or gingelly), castor, poppy, cotton, groundnut, etc.

(*c*) *Fibres:* Cotton, jute, hemp, silk, wool, etc.

(*d*) *Dyes:* Indigo, etc.

(*e*) *Drugs and Narcotics:* Opium, tea, coffee, tobacco, chinchona, Indian hemp, etc.

(*f*) *Miscellaneous Forest Products:* Caoutchouc, lac, teak, cutch, cocoanuts, betel-nuts, myrabolams, etc.

Export Crops.—The exportation of millets, pulses, barley and maize is unimportant, and rice and wheat are the only export food grains demanding special notice. Rice is produced more or less in all provinces, but exported mainly from Burma and Bengal. Burma rice has a thick, coarse grain, and much of it is shipped as cargo rice, having one part in five of paddy or unhusked rice, mainly for starch or distillation. Bengal rice is superior, but the quantity exported is much smaller than that of Burmese. The chief wheat areas are in the Punjab, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Central Provinces, and Bombay. Wheat is reaped in Upper India in April and May. In the rich black cotton soil of the Deccan the cultivator may choose between cotton, wheat, and linseed, according to the varying prospects of foreign markets. Although the area under non-food crops is small relatively to that under food crops, yet normally it yields the greatest portion of the exports. Oilseeds are important crops throughout India. Bengal exports linseed, and Madras exports sesamum in large quantities. Linseed and sesamum are very widely cultivated in the Central Provinces. Sesamum and castor are cultivated mainly in warm moist regions, while rape and mustard are produced in the drier and colder tracts. Bombay and Karachi send large quantities of oilseeds abroad. Of the fibre crops, cotton is the most important. It is grown largely in Gujarat and Kathiawar, which yield some of the best of the longer stapled cottons in India (Dholleras). Bombay, Berar, the Central Provinces, and Madras are the chief cotton-producers among British provinces. The cotton areas of Western, Central, and Northern India each yield a characteristic group of cottons, varying greatly in quantity, quality, strength, and

length of staple. Early cottons (represented by the 'Bengals,' the Oomras of Berar, Khandesh, etc., and the Hinganghats of the Central Provinces, etc.) mostly come into market from October to January, while the late cottons (including Surats and Dholleras) are usually marketed from February to April. The Indian cottons are generally short-stapled, and attempts to acclimatize Egyptian and American varieties have not met with great success. The cotton is for the most part ginned and pressed up-country. Jute, the next most important fibre, is produced in the swampy delta tracts of North and East Bengal, and no other area in the world can compete in this cheap fibre. Jute is bought up at small river marts by natives, who convey it to wholesale merchants at larger trade centres, whence it is shipped by river craft to Calcutta. The chief centres of tea cultivation are Assam and Darjiling (Bengal), while coffee cultivation, which makes little progress, is confined to Madras and Coorg. Indigo, which is declining, is grown mainly in Bengal and Madras, the Bengal (Behar) being far superior. Opium is cultivated and manufactured in two areas—in the Ganges Valley round Patna and Benares, and in the Native State of Malwa in Central India. Tobacco is widely grown, and the soil and climate favour it, but the quality is mostly not very good, so that little is exported. Lac, for gums and dyes, is the secretion of an insect abounding on certain jungle-trees in Chutia Nagpur (Bengal), etc. It is exported from Calcutta. Teak, a leading product of Burma, is the best-known export timber, but the sal and deodar are also important woods. India is unsurpassed in opium, jute, tea, coffee, and indigo, but some of her other agricultural produce is comparatively inferior, especially cotton, tobacco, and sugar.

Since 1870 Government has made systematic efforts to foster and develop agriculture by distributing information as to crops, working experimental farms, trying new staples, introducing new appliances, organizing schools, and improving the breeds of cattle.

Mineral Resources.—Considering its vast area, India is not very rich in minerals. Coal, iron, and salt are widely distributed, but not easily accessible. The production of coal on a commercial scale cannot well extend beyond certain well-defined areas. Many coalfields, however, are as yet not fully explored, and only a small part of the known coal area is at present worked. The chief fields are in Bengal—viz., Raniganj and Barakar, covering

500 square miles, the Karharbara (Giridhi), covering eight square miles, the Jherria and Bokaro fields, west of Raniganj, covering 420 square miles, and the North Karanpura, covering 472 square miles, with others less important. In Assam the chief coal-field is at Makum, in the Lakhimpur district. In Central India the most important field, and the only one systematically worked, is that of Umaria in Rewa. In the Central Provinces are the mines of Warora and Mohpani. In Southern India the chief mine is the Singareni, in Hyderabad. In Madras coal is found in the Godavari Valley. In fact, generally speaking, the Indian coalfields lie mainly between the Ganges and the Godavari, in the broad centre of the peninsula. At present the only important mining centre is in Bengal, which yields over four-fifths of India's total output. The chief coalfields worked in this province are the Raniganj, Jherria, and Giridhi, all served by the East Indian Railway, and within 200 miles of Calcutta. In 1900 there were altogether 287 mines at work in India, and the total production of coal was over 6,000,000 tons. Bengal coal is the best, and much of it is excellent. The chief drawback of Indian coal is the large amount of ash. The demand for Indian coal for railways and factories and for steamers' bunkers has greatly increased, and an export trade to Ceylon and the Straits is fast developing.

Iron is found in close proximity to coal at Raniganj in Bengal, where alone it is produced on a large scale. Large deposits of ore are also found near Salem in Madras, and in the vicinity of the Warora coalfield. Lack of limestone within easy range for smelting is a drawback. The iron industry is hardly at all developed in India. The production and utilization of the iron ores require the application of much capital. Deficient enterprise, the initial expense, want of fuel, and imperfect transport facilities, have been the chief difficulties hitherto.

Enormous quantities of salt are found in the Salt Range and the Kohat district of the Punjab. It is also obtained from inland lakes and wells, and by evaporation from the sea. Saltpetre is found in Behar, and after refinement is exported from Calcutta.

Gold is produced mainly in four tracts in Mysore (a Native State), and the yield, which has steadily increased for several years, is now over 500,000 ounces. No other tracts at present appear likely to yield gold in remunerative quantities.

Petroleum is chiefly obtained from the Yenangyaung district of Burma. Assam also has a small output of the oil. Other minerals are comparatively unimportant. Copper in the form of copper pyrites occurs in many parts, especially from Darjiling west to Kumaon, but attempts to exploit it have not been very successful. Tin occurs in promising quantities only in the Mergui district of Lower Burma. Manganese ore is being worked with good results for exportation at Vizagapatam in Madras. Upper Burma produces jade-stone and rubies. Bengal and Madras export small quantities of mica.

The following table shows the output of the chief minerals (so far as ascertainable) during the last five years, in tons of 2,240 pounds:

	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.
COAL:	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Bengal	3,038,000	3,142,000	3,622,000	3,883,000	4,978,000
Hyderabad ...	263,000	366,000	395,000	401,000	469,000
Central Provinces	141,000	132,000	150,000	157,000	173,000
Assam	177,000	186,000	200,000	226,000	217,000
Other Provinces	231,000	240,000	237,000	426,000	282,000
	3,850,000	4,066,000	4,604,000	5,093,000	6,119,000
SALT:					
Madras	349,000	242,000	252,000	269,000	322,000
Bombay and Sind	353,000	406,000	356,000	380,000	471,000
Northern India...	253,000	200,000	360,000	249,000	191,000
Other Provinces	25,000	29,000	18,000	32,000	21,000
	980,000	877,000	986,000	930,000	1,005,000
IRON:					
All Provinces ...	10,000	43,000	50,000	62,000	63,000
MANGANESE ORE:					
Madras	57,000	74,000	60,000	87,000	101,000
GOLD:	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.
Mysore	322,000	389,000	413,000	446,000	510,000
Elsewhere ...	2,000	2,000	6,000	10,000	3,000
	324,000	391,000	419,000	456,000	513,000
PETROLEUM:	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.
Burma	14,816,000	18,905,000	18,424,000	32,310,000	36,974,000
Assam	239,000	222,000	548,000	623,000	753,000
Punjab	2,000	2,000	—	1,000	2,000
	15,057,000	19,129,000	18,972,000	32,934,000	37,729,000

The output of saltpetre is not given, as accurate figures cannot be obtained.

Industrial Resources. — This large subject requires notice chiefly in relation to the production of commodities for export. The cotton industry is the most important factory industry. About 73 per cent. of the spinning-mills are in Bombay, but such mills are extending rapidly in other provinces. Probably one-half of India's production of raw cotton is consumed in her own mills. The yarn turned out by these mills is partly used at home, but chiefly exported to China. It consists mainly of coarse counts below 20s. Piece goods are woven on an increasing scale. Jute-mills, mainly located in and around Calcutta, are also rapidly growing, and increasing quantities of gunny bags and cloth are produced for home consumption and exportation. Leather goods, shawls, jewellery, brass and copper ware, wood-carving, tanned and dressed hides and skins, and carved ivory are among the manufactured products which affect the export trade, but these are far less important than cotton and jute manufactures. The following table shows the progress of the latter in recent years:

	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-00.	1900-1.
COTTON-MILLS:					
Number	154	163	175	186	190
Looms	37,300	36,900	37,300	38,500	40,500
Spindles	3,976,000	4,211,000	4,455,000	4,730,000	4,933,000
Yarn produced (million lbs.)	419·2	453·7	502·6	501·7	342·8
Woven goods produced (million lbs.)	81·4	88·0	98·7	95·3	95·8
JUTE-MILLS:					
Number	30	33	32	33	35
Looms	12,300	12,700	13,300	14,000	15,200
Spindles	255,000	271,000	277,000	293,000	315,000

It should be noted that for several years the cotton-mill industry has been adversely affected by plague and famine, and that the great decline in the output of yarn in 1900-1 was due partly to these causes, partly to the scarcity and dearness of raw cotton resulting from the failure of crops, and partly to troubles in China, the great market for Indian yarn.

Among other industries rice-mills and saw-mills, mostly in Burma, woollen-mills, paper-mills, and breweries may be mentioned. Steam-power is employed in tea gardens and indigo factories.

CHAPTER III.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, CURRENCY, EXCHANGE, AND BANKING.

Weights and measures—Coinage—Currency legislation—Exchange rates—Paper currency—Banking—Bank rates.

Weights and Measures.—In 1871 an Act was passed in India for the ultimate adoption of a uniform standard of weights and measures. It was designed to assimilate Indian standards to the metric standards. The ser, for instance, was to be the equivalent of the kilogramme and of the litre. This Act, however, has never been brought into operation.

The weights actually in use vary considerably in different parts of India, even when the same name is adopted. Thus, the maund is $82\frac{2}{7}$ pounds avoirdupois in Bengal, about 28 pounds in Bombay, and about 25 pounds in Madras. Moreover, they often vary for different commodities. The weights adopted in Government transactions and by the Indian railway companies are those which were established under the East India Company by Bengal Regulation VII. of 1833. By this Regulation the tola or sicca weight was fixed at 180 grains troy, and the other denominations of weight are derived from this unit as follows:

8 ruttees	= 1 masha	= 15 troy grains.	
12 mashas	= 1 tola	= 180 „	„
5 tolas	= 1 chittack	= 900 „	„
16 chittacks	= 1 ser	= $2\frac{1}{2}$ „	lbs. (or $2\frac{1}{17}$ lbs. avoir.
40 sers	= 1 imperial maund	= 100 „	„ (or $82\frac{2}{7}$ lbs. avoir.)

Dry and liquid goods are sold by weight in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, as there are no standard measures of capacity.

Besides the above, there is a factory weight, in which the maund is equivalent to about 74⅔ pounds, and a bazaar weight, in which the maund is 82⅓ pounds. In Madras the following weights are also used:

5 sers = 1 viss.
8 viss = 1 maund (nearly 25 lbs. avoir.).
20 maunds = 1 khandi („ 500 „ „).

In Burma:

2 moo = 1 mat.
4 mat = 1 tical (about 252 troy grains).
100 tical = 1 viss (about 3⅗ lbs. avoir.).

Special weights for particular commodities include the following:

Cotton is weighed		per bale of 392 lbs.
Wool	„	per bale of 336 lbs.
Wheat	„	per bag of 2 cwt.
Oilseeds	„	per bag of 1½ „ (usually).
Jute	„	per bale of 400 lbs.
Opium	„	per chest of 140⅐ lbs.

An Indian Act of 1889 declared the imperial standard yard (with the foot and inch) of the United Kingdom to be the legal standard measure of length in British India. In Bengal the guz (or gaz) is equivalent to 1 yard; but this measure of length varies in different localities from 24 to 36 inches.

In the Customs returns particulars of the quantities of merchandise have to be stated in British weights and measures—ounces, pounds, and hundredweights of 112 pounds, feet or yards, gallons, and cubic tons (for timber).

Coinage.—The coinage of India is governed by an Indian Act of 1870, which has been modified in important particulars by Acts of 1893 and 1899. The coins which are now legal tender to an unlimited amount are: (1) All gold coin of current weight coined at any mint in the British Empire; (2) silver rupees and half-rupees. Gold coin is legal tender at the rate of 15 rupees per £1. Rupees are no longer coined on private account. The rupee is a legal tender for all payments, so long as it is not defaced or has not lost more than two per cent. of its weight. It is the chief medium of

exchange and money of account. Copper coins are legal tender up to one rupee. The weight and fineness of the silver coins which the mints (Calcutta and Bombay) issue are as follows:

Fine Silver.	Alloy.	Eng. s.	Eng. d.	Amer. Cents.	
Rupee of 165 grains troy (= together 1 tola)	+ 15 grains troy	= 1	4	= 32	approx
½ rupee (8 anna piece)		= 0	8	= 16	„
¼ „ (4 „ „)		= 0	4	= 8	„
⅛ „ (2 „ „)		= 0	2	= 4	„
1 anna		= 0	1	= 2	„

Silver pieces of 1 anna have not been issued recently.

The weight and value of the copper coins are as follows:

Double pice of 200 grains troy (6 pies or ½ anna)	= ½d.	= 1 cent.
Pice (3 pies or ¼ anna) ...	= ¼d.	= ½ „
Pie	= 1/12 d.	= 1/6 „

100,000 rupees are called a lakh (lac), and 10,000,000 rupees a crore of rupees.

The Indian gold mohur of 16 rupees, which was not a legal tender is no longer coined; 100 sicca rupees (an old currency) are equivalent to 106 rupees 10 annas 8 pies of standard rupees.

Cowries (shells) are used in parts of India for small payments

Currency Legislation.—Until June, 1893, the equivalent of the rupee in British sterling money depended on the market price of silver, and for forty years prior to 1873 the value of the rupee had varied little from 2s.; but the fall in the gold price of silver after 1873 produced a serious fall in the sterling value of the rupee, the value in gold at one time touching 1s. 0½d. This fall in exchange caused serious loss upon the payments which the Government of India had to make in England, while trade was harassed by the speculative character which commercial transactions necessarily assumed owing to the constant oscillations in the standard of value. In order to remedy these evils, the Indian mints, previously open for the unrestricted coinage of silver into rupees, were closed to the public on June 26, 1893, though Government was not deprived of the power to coin rupees if they should be required to

meet the demands for circulation. It was notified that until further orders gold coin and bullion would be received at the mints in exchange for Government rupees at the rate of 7·53344 grains of fine gold for 1 rupee, being equivalent to a rate of exchange of 1s. 4d. per rupee. The object was to fix the exchange between gold and silver at this rate. Further, gold coins of the full legal weight, coined at the Royal Mint in England or any of its branches, were made legal tender at all British-Indian treasuries. In 1899 these gold coins were, as mentioned above, made legal tender for all transactions. The effect of this legislation has been to place the English sovereign and half-sovereign side by side with the rupee as legal tender coins. It should be added that the Government's currency legislation has succeeded. From June, 1893, till January, 1898, the rupee underwent considerable fluctuation, but since the latter date it has remained practically stable at 1s. 4d. A considerable stock of gold has also been accumulated in the treasuries of Government, brought in not by loan, but in the course of the ordinary operations of trade.

Exchange Rates.—The average rate of exchange obtained for Indian Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers, drawn by the Secretary of State on the Indian Exchequer and bought in England by merchants and others desiring to make payments in India, has been as follows for the last ten years, per rupee (approximately):

	s.	d.	Cents.		s.	d.	Cents.
1891-2	1	4¾	= 33	1896-7	1	2½	= 29
1892-3	1	3	= 30	1897-8	1	3½	= 31
1893-4	1	2½	= 29	1898-9	1	4	= 32
1894-5	1	1	= 26	1899-1900 ...	1	4	= 32
1895-6	1	1½	= 27	1900-1	1	4	= 32

In the tables given in a subsequent portion of this volume amounts in rupees are converted into pounds sterling at fifteen rupees per £1, and into dollars at three rupees to the dollar. The results are not quite precise, but are sufficiently accurate for tracing the course and trend of Indian trade.

Paper Currency.—Notes are issued by a Government Department, no banks being allowed to issue notes. By the Act of 1893 the Government was authorized to issue currency notes in exchange for gold coin or bullion to any amount, the law having

hitherto provided only for the issue of notes against silver. The Department of Paper Currency issues without any limit note (called currency notes) of the Government of India, payable t the bearer on demand, of the denominations of 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 500, 1,000 and 10,000 rupees, the issue being made in exchange fo silver coin from all paper currency offices and for gold coin from th head offices in Calcutta and Bombay on the requisition of t Controller-General, at the rate of 1s. 4d. per rupee. The circles an offices of issue of the notes, and the territories or circles within whic they are legal tender, are as follows:

Offices of Issue.	Circles.
Calcutta	Bengal and Assam.
Allahabad (sub-office) ...	North-Western Provinces and Oudh.
Lahore (sub-office) ...	Punjab.
Madras	Madras (except portion under Calicu
Calicut (sub-office) ...	Districts of Malabar, South Canar Coimbatore, Nilgiris, and Coorg.
Bombay	Bombay and Central Provinces.
Karachi (sub-office) ...	Sind.
Rangoon	Burma (except Shan States).

Notes are legal tender only within their own circle, and a payable only at the office of issue, or in the case of sub-offices the Presidency circle, though for convenience any paper currenc office is permitted to cash notes of other circles. Ordinarily, to any Government Treasury (of which there are 250 in India) wi cash notes if it can conveniently do so. Bankers usually charg 1 per cent. for cashing notes of other circles. Notes are covere by the gold and silver received for them, excepting that a maximu value of 100,000,000 rupees may be covered by Government secur ties. Currency notes may be issued on the security of gold held b the Secretary of State for India in London. In 1900-1 the averag monthly circulation of currency notes was 288,800,000 rupees. Th most popular notes are those for 10 rupees and 100 rupees.

Banking.—Excluding native banks, which are very numerou and many of which enjoy a high reputation with the Europe banks, the following are the principal banks in India:

Presidency Banks.

Bank of Bengal, Calcutta, with branches or agencies in Bombay, Rangoon, Moulmein, Akyab, and many other important towns.

Bank of Bombay, Bombay, with branches at Karachi, etc.

Bank of Madras, Madras, with branches at Calicut, Cocanada, Tuticorin, Tellicherry, Mangalore, Bimlipatam, Negapatam, Vizagapatam, Cochin, etc.

These banks are regulated by the Presidency Banks Act of 1876.

Banks with Head Offices in India.

Allahabad Bank, Limited, Allahabad, Calcutta, etc.

Alliance Bank of Simla, Limited, Simla, Calcutta, etc.

Bank of Calcutta, Limited, Calcutta.

Commercial Bank of India, Limited, Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras, Rangoon, etc.

Bank of Upper India, Limited, Meerut, Delhi, etc.

Oudh Commercial Bank, Limited, Fyzabad.

Punjab Banking Company, Limited, Lahore, Karachi, etc.

Deccan Banking and Agency Corporation, Limited, Madras.

Exchange Banks.

[C]hartered Bank of India, Australia, and China (London), Bombay, [Cal]cutta, Madras, Rangoon, and Akyab.

[Com]ptoir National d'Escompte de Paris (Paris), Calcutta.

[Lo]yd's and London Bank, Limited (London), Calcutta, Delhi, [Bom]bay, etc.

[Deu]tsche-Asiatische Bank (Shanghai), Calcutta.

[Hon]g Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation (Hong Kong), Bombay, Calcutta, and Rangoon (exchange business with New York).

[Mer]cantile Bank of India, Limited (London), Calcutta, Bombay, [Madra]s, and Karachi.

[Nati]onal Bank of India, Limited (London), Calcutta, Bombay, [Madra]s, Tuticorin, Karachi, and Rangoon.

[Yoko]hama Specie Bank (Yokohama), Bombay.

[In] 1899 the capital of the Presidency and other Indian banks was [£29],025,000 (=£2,935,000, or $14,675,000), and the reserve and

rest, Rs. 25,150,000 (= £1,677,000, or $8,385,000). The capital o the exchange banks, which is not kept in India, was £8,945,00 (= $44,725,000), and reserve and rest, £3,298,000 (= $16,490,000) The total capital of these banks is not great, and it has not grown i proportion to the growth in the foreign and internal trade of India In the last twenty-five years the public deposits of the Presidenc banks have been almost stationary, while the private deposits those banks, and still more in other Indian banks, have increase rapidly. The capital and reserves of Indian banks bear the hig proportion of 1 to 3 of deposits. The deposits in India of th exchange banks have increased faster than those of the India banks. Complaints have been made of the inability of the bank to manage commercial credit satisfactorily, and severe monetar stringency sometimes occurs in Calcutta and Bombay. To reme this evil, it has been proposed to concentrate the capital of the P sidency banks by forming one great Bank of India, but opinio differ widely as to the merits of this proposal, and the scheme h been postponed indefinitely. The following table shows the ban deposits in India for the last five years available :

	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.
Indian Banks ...	£14,497,600	13,913,500	12,866,400	13,479,000	14,07
=	$72,488,000	69,567,500	64,332,000	67,395,000	70,3
Exchange Banks	£6,872,400	6,768,700	6,059,600	6,328,600	6,9
=	$34,362,000	33,843,500	30,298,000	31,643,000	34,6
Total ...	£21,370,000	20,682,200	18,926,000	19,807,600	21,
=	$106,850,000	103,411,000	94,630,000	99,038,000	105,

Earnest attention is now being given to the institution of ag tural banks in India with the aid and encouragement o Government.

Besides the banks above enumerated, there are many fi bankers and agents, of whom the following may be named: T and Son, Calcutta, Bombay, and Rangoon; W. Watson a Calcutta, Bombay, and Karachi; Grindlay and Co., Ca Grindlay, Groom and Co., Bombay; King, Hamilton an Calcutta; King, King and Co., Bombay; Thacker, Spink a

alcutta; Andrew Yule and Co., Calcutta; Balmer, Lawrie and o., Calcutta; Gillanders, Arbuthnot and Co., Calcutta and Rangoon; D. Sassoon and Co., Calcutta and Bombay; Latham and Co., ombay and Karachi; Forbes, Forbes and Co., Karachi; Scott d Co., Rangoon; Arbuthnot and Co., Madras; Best and Co., Madras; Binny and Co., Madras; Gordon, Woodroffe and Co., Madras; Parry and Co., Madras.

Bank Rates.—The following table shows the average minimum ate of discount per cent. per annum at the Bank of Bengal for each alf-year and year from 1896 to 1900:

		Average for half-years. Per cent.	Average for year. Per cent.
1896	June 30	5·77	5·69.
	December 31	5·61	
1897	June 30	9·88	7·93.
	December 31	5·97	
1898	June 30	11·00	8·05.
	December 31	5·10	
1899	June 30	6·23	5·73.
	December 31	5·23	
1900	June 30	6·52	5·24.
	December 31	3·96	

It will be observed that the rate is usually much higher in the arlier half of the year. Frontier war and famine caused monetary tringency in 1897-8.

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

CHAPTER IV.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The total trade—Value per head—Gold and silver—Excess of exports—Land trade—Table of total trade—Sea-borne trade with countries, with tables of imports and exports—Sea-borne imports of merchandise, with tables of quantity and value—Imports of cotton goods, metals and metal manufactures, sugar, and mineral oil, with tables—Sea-borne exports and re-exports of merchandise, with tables of quantity and value.

The Total Trade.—The following table showing the trade of the last five years requires a few comments. During 1896-97 and 1897-98 severe famine affected vast areas, and exports declined heavily. The outbreak of plague in Bombay and Sind dislocated trade still further. Famine requirements and other causes gave rise to a drain of money, which entailed contraction of credit. Matters improved in 1898-99, a year of comparative prosperity. But 1899-1900 and 1900-1901 brought more troubles, famine and plague recurring with great severity. Yet, bad as things were, the total trade returns in 1900-1901 reached the highest point recorded for, though exports declined, imports advanced, the probable explanation being that the high prices received for abundant crops in non-famine areas enabled the purchasing power of India as a whole to be maintained.

Value of Trade per Head.—The value of the trade per head of the population is small. The *per capita* value of the imports in 1900-1901 was about 4s. 8d. (or $1.16), of the exports 5s. 4d. (or $1.33), and of the total trade 10s. (or $2.49).

Gold and Silver.—A remarkable feature of Indian trade is the constant net import of the precious metals. In the five years covered by the table, the transactions in gold and silver were exceptional, owing partly to the currency operations of the Government, partly

the slackened demand of the natives for these metals for purposes of ornament in consequence of famine.

Excess of Exports.—Another prominent feature is the constant excess of exports over imports. This arises from the fact that India, besides her payments for imported goods, has to pay interest on loans raised in England for railways and general purposes, and has also to defray the charges incurred in England for services and stores of a civil and military character. The excess of exports also covers profits on capital invested industrially in India, as well as payments for ocean and coasting freights, India having very few ships of her own.

Land Trade.—The land trade is carried on with Persia, Afghanistan, Central Asia, Nepal, Tibet, Western China, and Siam. Cotton goods, European and Indian, constitute the chief exports over the land frontier, salt, provisions, and metals coming next. The chief imports are rice, teak, and provisions.

VALUE OF THE TOTAL TRADE OF BRITISH INDIA IN POUNDS STERLING.

	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
SEA-BORNE TRADE.					
Imports:	£	£	£	£	£
Private Merchandise ..	47,863,000	46,178,000	45,587,000	47,141,000	50,852,000
Government Stores ..	2,882,000	2,920,000	2,481,000	3,062,000	3,078,000
Gold and Silver ..	8,723,000	13,687,000	11,930,000	13,982,000	16,384,000
Total Imports ..	59,468,000	62,785,000	59,998,000	64,185,000	70,314,000
Exports:					
Private Merchandise:					
Exports of Indian Produce, etc. ..	66,587,000	62,524,000	72,900,000	70,456,000	69,470,000
Re-exports	2,689,000	2,501,000	2,248,000	2,195,000	2,139,000
Government Stores ..	46,000	64,000	52,000	71,000	233,000
Gold and Silver ..	3,292,000	4,766,000	4,941,000	5,305,000	9,485,000
Total Exports ..	72,614,000	69,855,000	80,141,000	78,027,000	81,327,000
Total Sea-borne Trade..	132,082,000	132,640,000	140,139,000	142,212,000	151,641,000
LAND TRADE.					
Imports:					
Merchandise	3,196,000	3,349,000	3,667,000	4,096,000	4,277,000
Gold and Silver ..	562,000	408,000	394,000	597,000	456,000
Total Imports ..	3,758,000	3,757,000	4,061,000	4,693,000	4,733,000
Exports:					
Merchandise	2,873,000	2,722,000	3,092,000	3,365,000	3,617,000
Gold and Silver ..	418,000	565,000	432,000	355,000	763,000
Total Exports ..	3,291,000	3,287,000	3,524,000	3,720,000	4,380,000
Total Land Trade ..	7,049,000	7,044,000	7,585,000	8,413,000	9,113,000

VALUE OF THE TOTAL TRADE IN DOLLARS.

	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
SEA-BORNE TRADE.					
Imports:	$	$	$	$	$
Private Merchandise ..	239,315,000	230,890,000	227,935,000	235,705,000	254,260,000
Government Stores ..	14,410,000	14,600,000	12,405,000	15,310,000	15,390,000
Gold and Silver ..	43,615,000	68,435,000	59,650,000	69,910,000	81,920,000
Total Imports ..	297,340,000	313,925,000	299,990,000	320,925,000	351 570,000
Exports:					
Private Merchandise: Exports of Indian Produce, etc. ..	332,935,000	312,620,000	364,500,000	352,280,000	347,350,000
Re-exports	13,445,000	12,505,000	11,240,000	10,975,000	10,695,000
Government Stores ..	230,000	320,000	260,000	355,000	1,165,000
Gold and Silver ..	16,460,000	23,830,000	24,705,000	26,525,000	47,425,000
Total Exports ..	363,070,000	349,275,000	400,705,000	390,135,000	406,635,000
Total Sea-borne Trade ..	660,410,000	663,200,000	700,695,000	711,060,000	758,205,000
LAND TRADE.					
Imports:					
Merchandise	15,980,000	16,745,000	18,335,000	20,480,000	21,385,000
Gold and Silver ..	2,810,000	2,040,000	1,970,000	2,985,000	2,280,000
Total Imports ..	18,790,000	18,785,000	20,305,000	23,465,000	23,665,000
Exports:					
Merchandise	14,365,000	13,610,000	15,460,000	16,825,000	18,085,000
Gold and Silver ..	2,090,000	2,825,000	2,160,000	1,775,000	3,815,000
Total Exports ..	16,455,000	16,435,000	17,620,000	18,600,000	21,900,000
Total Land Trade ..	35,245,000	35,220,000	37,925,000	42,065,000	45,565,000

It should be observed that in the tables in this chapter only merchandise imported or exported by private persons or firms is taken into account, unless Government stores are specially indicated. Gold and silver are excluded from all but the first table. The Indian rupees have been converted at fifteen rupees per pound sterling, and at three rupees per dollar. The figures are for the year ended March 31.

Sea-borne Trade with Countries.—The statistics of the quantities or values of goods imported and exported refer only to the countries whence the imports come, and to the destination of the exports, as shown in the bills of entry and shipping bills respectively; they do not indicate the prime origin of imports or the ultimate destination of exports. Thus, in 1899 Switzerland sent to India a large quantity of cotton goods, but no Swiss goods appear in the Indian trade returns, as the ports of shipment were probably Italian or French. The declarations in the shipping documents undergo scrutiny, and penalties may be inflicted for false

ements. The values are the wholesale values at the places of ort or export, after deducting trade discount. Duty is not uded in the value of dutiable goods. The trade returns are e of 'general' trade, 'special' trade not being distinguished; foreign goods re-exported are shown separately from exports of an produce and manufactures. Transhipments are not included. Nearly two-thirds of the trade of India is with Europe, but during n years there has been no progress, for though imports from Europe ave grown, exports thereto have steadily fallen. The Asiatic trade as progressed, especially in exports, and is now nearly one-fourth of he total. Exports to Africa, America, and Australia tend to increase.

The United Kingdom has become less important both as a central art for Indian produce and as a depot for the export of Con- nental goods to India, owing chiefly to the establishment of direct eamship services, which save foreigners freight and agency charges. Nevertheless, the entrepot trade remains considerable, especially in ute, jute goods, and tea. Although British Indian trade has leclined, partly through the falling off in emporium business, Great Britain still sends about 70 per cent. of India's imported merchandise, nd takes nearly 30 per cent. of the exports of Indian merchandise.

China comes second in the list, mainly owing to her large imports f Indian opium and cotton yarn. The China trade is, on the whole, nprogressive. As regards European countries, the development of erman, Belgian, and Austro-Hungarian trade with India must be oted. It is due to the industrial progress made by these countries d to the establishment of direct steamers. Germany sends sugar, ardware and cutlery, salt, woollen goods, and a variety of cheap ares, and takes an increasing quantity of Indian produce. Im- orts from Belgium are mainly metals, dyes, and glass, but she urchases much less from India than Germany does. The trade ith Austria-Hungary has steadily grown, largely on account of ugar imports, stimulated by bounties, while apparel, cotton and oollen goods, and glass and glassware are taken by India in growing uantities. Trade with Italy and France lacks elasticity. In brief, we may say that European countries show progress in their sales o India of apparel, cotton and woollen goods, glass and glassware, yes, sugar, hardware and cutlery, and metals, while they take from ndia increasing quantities of raw cotton, rice, raw hides, oilseeds, ute, and wheat. Trade with the United States, though increasing, s as yet comparatively small. Petroleum forms the chief item in

VALUE OF IMPORTS OF PRIVATE MERCHANDISE FROM PRINCI COUNTRIES INTO BRITISH INDIA IN POUNDS STERLING.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-
EUROPE:	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom ..	33,531,000	30,970,000	31,355,000	32,502,000	32,451,00
Austria-Hungary .	992,000	1,432,000	1,619,000	1,589,000	2,091,000
Belgium	1,602,000	1,523,000	1,487,000	1,224,000	1,620,000
France	613,000	588,000	688,000	684,000	739,000
Germany	1,538,000	1,623,000	1,152,000	1,123,000	1,735,000
Holland	160,000	193,000	235,000	207,000	287,000
Italy	310,000	333,000	374,000	493,000	551,00
Russia	1,346,000	1,387,000	1,369,000	1,601,000	1,893,00
Other Countries ...	128,000	148,000	128,000	186,000	196,00
	40,220,000	38,197,000	38,407,000	39,609,000	41,563,00
ASIA:					
Aden	91,000	102,000	77,000	99,000	111,000
Arabia	330,000	333,000	296,000	539,000	379,000
Ceylon	455,000	714,000	468,000	410,000	505,000
China, Hong Kong	947,000	862,000	767,000	735,000	1,068,000
,, Treaty Ports	486,000	266,000	362,000	330,000	630,000
Japan	365,000	356,000	363,000	333,000	559,000
Java	94,000	139,000	130,000	183,000	178,000
Persia	457,000	462,000	389,000	552,000	476,000
Straits Settlements	1,228,000	1,606,000	1,337,000	1,290,000	1,545,000
Turkey in Asia ...	261,000	194,000	97,000	293,000	363,000
Other Countries ...	138,000	368,000	192,000	178,000	167,00
	4,852,000	5,402,000	4,478,000	4,942,000	5,981,00
AFRICA:					
Egypt	133,000	1,127,000	84,000	147,000	199,00
Mauritius ...	1,205,000	122,000	1,306,000	1,099,000	1,613,00
Zanzibar	137,000	104,000	156,000	163,000	116,00
Other Countries ...	35,000	48,000	30,000	44,000	27,00
	1,510,000	1,401,000	1,576,000	1,453,000	1,955,00
AMERICA:					
United States ...	978,000	954,000	903,000	828,000	833,00
Other Countries ...	1,000	1,000	1,000	18,000	1,00
	979,000	955,000	909,000	846,000	834,00
AUSTRALASIA ...	302,000	223,000	217,000	291,000	519,00
Total	47,863,000	46,178,000	45,587,000	47,141,000	50,852,00

E OF IMPORTS OF PRIVATE MERCHANDISE FROM PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES INTO BRITISH INDIA IN DOLLARS.

ountries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
OPE :	$	$	$	$	$
ted Kingdom	167,655,000	154,850,000	156,775,000	162,510,000	162,255,000
stria-Hungary	4,960,000	7,160,000	8,095,000	7,945,000	10,455,000
elgium ...	8,010,000	7,615,000	7,435,000	6,120,000	8,100,000
rance	3,065,000	2,940,000	3,440,000	3,420,000	3,695,000
Germany ...	7,690,000	8,115,000	5,760,000	5,615,000	8,675,000
Holland ...	800,000	965,000	1,175,000	1,035,000	1,435,900
Italy	1,550,000	1,665,000	1,860,000	2,465,000	2,755,000
Russia	6,730,000	6,935,000	6,845,000	8,005,000	9,465,000
Other Countries	640,000	740,000	645,000	930,000	980,000
	201,100,000	190,985,000	192,030,000	198,045,000	207,815,000
SIA :					
Aden	455,000	510,000	385,000	495,000	555,000
Arabia	1,650,000	1,665,000	1,480,000	2,695,000	1,895,000
Ceylon	2,275,000	3,570,000	2,340,000	2,050,000	2,525,000
China, Hong Kong ...	4,735,000	4,310,000	3,835,000	3,675,000	5,340,000
China, Treaty Ports ...	2,430,000	1,330,000	1,810,000	1,650,000	3,150,000
Japan	1,825,000	1,780,000	1,815,000	1,665,000	2,795,000
Java	470,000	695,000	650,000	915,000	890,000
Persia	2,285,000	2,310,000	1,945,000	2,760,000	2,380,000
Straits Settlements ...	6,140,000	8,030,000	6,685,000	6,450,000	7,725,000
Turkey in Asia	1,305,000	970,000	485,000	1,465,000	1,815,000
Other Countries	690,000	1,840,000	965,000	890,000	835,000
	24,260,000	27,010,000	22,395,000	24,710,000	29,905,000
AFRICA :					
Egypt	665,000	635,000	420,000	735,000	995,000
Mauritius ...	6,025,000	5,610,000	6,530,000	5,495,000	8,065,000
Zanzibar ...	685,000	520,000	780,000	815,000	580,000
Other Countries	175,000	240,000	150,000	220,000	135,000
	7,550,000	7,005,000	7,880,000	7,265,000	9,775,000
MERICA :					
United States	4,890,000	4,770,000	4,540,000	4,140,000	4,165,000
Other Countries	5,000	5,000	5,000	90,000	5,000
	4,895,000	4,775,000	4,545,000	4,230,000	4,170,000
USTRALASIA ...	1,510,000	1,115,000	1,085,000	1,455,000	2,595,000
Total ...	239,315,000	230,890,000	227,935,000	235,705,000	254,260,000

VALUE OF EXPORTS (NOT INCLUDING RE-EXPORTS) OF PRI[VATE] MERCHANDISE TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES FROM BRITISH I[NDIA] IN POUNDS STERLING.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	190[0]
EUROPE:	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	21,098,000	19,464,000	21,337,000	20,589,000	20,918
Austria-Hungary	1,664,000	1,401,000	1,391,000	1,134,000	1,805
Belgium	2,035,000	2,019,000	3,161,000	2,274,000	2,365,0
France	4,237,000	3,751,000	5,211,000	4,435,000	3,988,0
Germany	5,024,000	4,788,000	5,497,000	5,009,000	6,138,00
Holland	398,000	199,000	315,000	284,000	313,00
Italy	2,018,000	1,783,000	2,203,000	1,809,000	2,042,00
Russia	171,000	73,000	83,000	82,000	162,00
Spain	114,000	137,000	101,000	111,000	290,0
Other Countries ...	95,000	117,000	121,000	84,000	147,0
	36,854,000	33,732,000	39,420,000	35,811,000	38,168,0
ASIA:					
Aden	523,000	566,000	710,000	590,000	437,00
Arabia	523,000	57[illegible],000	865,000	453,000	453,00
Ceylon	2,073,000	2,665,000	2,805,000	2,785,000	3,193,00
China, Hong Kong	5,501,000	5,039,000	5,294,000	5,300,000	5,282,00
,, Treaty Ports	3,620,000	3,016,000	3,178,000	4,077,000	2,547,00
Japan	2,717,000	2,772,000	3,477,000	4,224,000	1,390,00
Persia	278,000	361,000	470,000	244,000	344,00
Straits Settlements	3,339,000	2,862,000	3,763,000	3,662,000	4,572,00
Turkey in Asia ...	344,000	310,000	365,000	273,000	373,00
Other Countries ...	402,000	229,000	224,000	216,000	447,00
	19,320,000	18,396,000	21,151,000	21,824,000	19,038,00
AFRICA:					
Abyssinia... ...	114,000	55,000	171,000	109,000	54,0
Cape Colony ...	226,000	195,000	178,000	194,000	190,0
Egypt	3,236,000	2,632,000	4,565,000	3,581,000	3,002,0
Mauritius	751,000	749,000	847,000	648,000	835,0
Natal	260,000	174,000	245,000	238,000	246,0
Portuguese East Africa	118,000	73,000	80,000	96,000	162,0
Zanzibar	360,000	355,000	562,000	355,000	419,0
Other Countries ...	250,000	169,000	217,000	241,000	220,0
	5,315,000	4,402,000	6,865,000	5,462,000	5,128,0
AMERICA:					
United States ...	3,209,000	3,916,000	3,589,000	5,077,000	4,811,0
South America ...	957,000	1,141,000	850,000	1,053,000	876,0
Other Countries ...	146,000	113,000	170,000	164,000	175,0
	4,312,000	5,170,000	4,609,000	6,294,000	5,862,0
AUSTRALASIA ...	786,000	824,000	855,000	1,065,000	1,274,0
Total	66,587,000	62,524,000	72,900,000	70,456,000	69,470,0

OF EXPORTS (NOT INCLUDING RE-EXPORTS) OF PRIVATE RCHANDISE TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES FROM BRITISH INDIA DOLLARS.

ıtries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
e:	$	$	$	$	$
d Kingdom	105,490,000	97,320,000	106,685,000	102,945,000	104,590,000
ria - Hun-					
... ...	8,320,000	7,005,000	6,955,000	5,670,000	9,025,000
m ...	10,175,000	10,095,000	15,805,000	11,370,000	11,825,000
e ...	21,185,000	18,755,000	26,055,000	22,175,000	19,940,000
any. ...	25,120,000	23,940,000	27,485,000	25,045,000	30,690,000
nd ...	1,990,000	995,000	1,575,000	1,420,000	1,565,000
... ...	10,090,000	8,915,000	11,015,000	9,045,000	10,210,000
ssia	855,000	365,000	415,000	410,000	810,000
ain	570,000	685,000	505,000	555,000	1,450,000
ther Countries	475,000	585,000	605,000	420,000	735,000
	184,270,000	168,660,000	197,100,000	179,055,000	190,840,000
SIA :					
Aden	2,615,000	2,830,000	3,550,000	2,950,000	2,185,000
Arabia	2,615,000	2,880,000	4,325,000	2,265,000	2,265,000
Ceylon... ...	10,365,000	13,325,000	14,025,000	13,925,000	15,965,000
China, Hong Kong ...	27,505,000	25,195,000	26,470,000	26,500,000	26,410,000
China, Treaty Ports ...	18,100,000	15,080,000	15,890,000	20,385,000	12,735,000
Japan	13,585,000	13,860,000	17,385,000	21,120,000	6,950,000
Persia	1,390,000	1,805,000	2,350,000	1,220,000	1,720,000
Straits Settlements ...	16,695,000	14,310,000	18,815,000	18,310,000	22,860,000
Turkey in Asia	1,720,000	1,550,000	1,825,000	1,365,000	1,865,000
Other Countries	2,010,000	1,145,000	1,120,000	1,080,000	2,235,000
	96,600,000	91,980,000	105,755,000	109,120,000	95,190,000
FRICA :					
Abyssinia ...	570,000	275,000	855,000	545,000	270,000
Cape Colony ...	1,130,000	975,000	890,000	970,000	950,000
Egypt	16,180,000	13,160,000	22,825,000	17,905,000	15,010,000
Mauritius ...	3,755,000	3,745,000	4,235,000	3,240,000	4,175,000
Natal	1,300,000	870,000	1,225,000	1,190,000	1,230,000
Portuguese East Africa ...	590,000	365,000	400,000	480,000	810,000
Zanzibar ...	1,800,000	1,775,000	2,810,000	1,775,000	2,095,000
Other Countries	1,250,000	845,000	1,085,000	1,205,000	1,100,000
	26,575,000	22,010,000	34,325,000	27,310,000	25,640,000
AMERICA :					
United States...	16,045,000	19,580,000	17,945,000	25,385,000	24,055,000
South America	4,785,000	5,705,000	4,250,000	5,265,000	4,380,000
Other Countries	730,000	565,000	850,000	820,000	875,000
	21,560,000	25,850,000	23,045,000	31,470,000	29,300,000
AUSTRALASIA ...	3,930,000	4,120,000	4,275,000	5,325,000	6,370,000
Total ...	332,935,000	312,620,000	364,500,000	352,280,000	347,350,000

the imports. Russia seems to be ousting America in p
her only important article of trade with India. Japa
used to import cotton-yarn from India, now takes hea
signments of raw cotton instead. Large quantities
wheat, and seeds go to Port Said to await orders for deli
European ports. Hence the export trade with Egypt appea
greater than it really is. There is a large coasting and
trade with Ceylon. The trade with Singapore, Aden, Hon
and Zanzibar is really an entrepot trade, these being
receiving and distributing centres for the neighbouring
Australia takes tea and gunny bags and sends horses,
Mauritius sends sugar and takes rice and cotton goods.

Sea-borne Imports of Merchandise.—As the chief imp
are dealt with in separate tables, only a few general remarks a
needed here. The diversity of Indian soil and climate enables t
people to satisfy all their urgent wants from the land, which most
them are engaged in cultivating. Demands for produce in one pa
of India can generally be met more cheaply and conveniently fro
another part than from abroad. Hence the demand for foreig
goods is small per head of the population, and the important articl
of trade are not numerous. Cotton goods form about 38 per cen
and metals and metal manufactures about 17 per cent., of the tot
imports. If we add to these sugar and petroleum, we account f
two-thirds of the value of imported merchandise. Provisions (inclu
ing groceries and canned goods), beer, wines, and spirits, paper a
stationery, carriages and carts, tobacco, apparel, and woollen and si
goods, are bought in considerable quantities, and are largely co
sumed by European residents. Coal imports are declining. Impo
of salt (as of coal) depend partly on freights, being sent as outwa
cargo from Liverpool or Hamburg in the busy season of the India
export trade. Aniline and alizarine dyes, mostly from Belgium
Holland, and Germany, have been superseding Indian vegetabl
dyes, because they are cheaper and more easily worked. Matches
lamps, glass and glassware, Swiss and American clocks and watches
and umbrellas, are among the cheap articles for which a considerabl
demand has grown up among the natives.

Imports of Cotton Yarn and Piece Goods.—This trade i
mainly in the hands of England, which does about 98 per cent. o
the total. There is a tendency for imports of lower counts of twis

...Y OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRIVATE MERCHANDISE IMPORTED FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

...rticles.		1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
..., etc. ...	*Tons*	494,960	261,739	358,880	422,376	127,318
...w ...	*Cwt.*	57,017	46,213	37,468	188,795	225,214
...wist and Yarn ...	*Lbs.*	50,173,890	58,290,717	45,545,668	42,621,854	34,803,334
...iece Goods	*Yds.*	1,996,991,128	1,860,597,913	2,069,099,893	2,191,342,906	2,002,820,214
...ce Goods, ...	*Yds.*	3,015,472	2,963,835	2,842,006	2,795,256	3,380,106
...sheet and ...te ...	*Sup. ft.*	8,343,436	6,436,988	8,396,641	8,163,667	7,117,227
...d Pulse ...	*Cwt.*	1,080,602	1,072,415	59,171	1,509,575	1,955,095
... ...	*No.*	7,191	4,992	7,622	7,093	10,682
Unmanufactured	*Lbs.*	331,085	335,562	329,085	169,162	258,585
quors :						
Malt	*Galls.*	3,025,833	2,838,572	3,231,025	3,211,984	3,231,444
Spirits, etc. ...	,,	1,193,560	1,217,491	1,263,348	1,244,917	1,253,303
Wines	,,	355,254	326,101	332,204	318,849	324,627
etals :						
Iron	*Tons*	194,481	196,896	164,517	149,097	169,992
Steel	,,	77,646	92,355	84,145	72,636	92,586
Brass	*Cwt.*	9,827	13,198	8,729	10,196	11,899
Copper	,,	240,648	322,348	251,301	90,846	159,971
Zinc or Spelter ...	,,	44,330	62,708	74,714	77,080	71,572
Tin	,,	36,397	38,628	29,198	17,401	22,741
Lead	,,	123,434	114,283	100,795	103,249	122,264
Quicksilver ...	*Lbs.*	260,141	316,208	254,274	192,878	266,937
il, Mineral ...	*Galls.*	68,421,148	87,325,026	81,951,472	74,989,433	80,788,582
lt	*Tons*	328,304	486,716	411,865	416,636	347,787
lk, Raw	*Lbs.*	2,287,752	2,049,608	2,250,866	1,694,848	2,535,377
,, Piece Goods, etc.	*Yds.*	15,758,882	14,197,768	17,207,056	11,845,568	20,672,662
es	*Lbs.*	78,903,491	93,241,454	87,989,038	101,344,689	97,791,074
r	*Cwt.*	2,861,400	4,608,630	4,077,499	3,360,862	5,276,790
cco	,,	2,175,936	2,636,172	2,688,844	3,389,578	3,748,009
rellas	*No.*	3,790,897	4,021,980	3,036,658	3,099,766	2,913,797
, Piece Goods	*Yds.*	14,309,611	9,893,944	13,254,975	14,401,877	14,278,145
Shawls ...	*No.*	963,181	400,582	893,451	1,505,214	1,776,033
,, Braids, Carpets, etc....	*Lbs.*	1,777,423	2,078,093	2,309,340	2,361,441	2,741,065

N.B.—A ton = 2,240 lbs. and a cwt. = 112 lbs.

l yarn to decline, partly because they are being ousted by similar rns made in Indian mills, partly because the wider distribution of ported piece-goods has partially displaced native cloths woven m imported yarns. The bulk of the present yarn imports consists coloured yarns of medium counts (26 to 40). The quantities of arn imported in the last ten years have been almost stationary.

The imports of cotton piece-goods form by far the most important anch of Indian trade. In recent years, however, these imports ave been on the whole unprogressive. This may be due in part to cent famines, but probably it is due still more to the growth of e Indian mill industry. Grey (unbleached) goods, which form the

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRIVATE MER[illegible] IMPORTED INTO BRITISH INDIA BY SEA FROM COUNTRIES IN POUNDS STERLING.

Articles.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-190[illegible]	
	£	£	£	£	
Apparel	1,011,000	816,000	920,000	976,000	
Arms, Ammunition, etc.	173,000	171,000	193,000	169,000	
Books, Paper, and Stationery	635,000	538,000	656,000	622,000	
Building and Engineering Materials	111,000	137,000	135,000	128,000	
Carriages, Carts, etc.	150,000	190,000	212,000	177,000	
Chemicals	258,000	304,000	283,000	300,000	
Coal, Coke, etc.	653,000	357,000	464,000	540,000	
Cotton:					
Raw	85,000	69,000	58,000	308,000	467,
Twist and Yarn	2,217,000	2,329,000	1,701,000	1,633,000	1,659,
Manufactures	17,616,000	15,268,000	16,452,000	18,001,000	18,231,
Drugs and Medicines	339,000	369,000	345,000	336,000	411,
Dyeing and Tanning Materials	488,000	512,000	518,000	429,000	451,
Flax Manufactures	101,000	104,000	91,000	98,000	128,
Glass and Glasswase	469,000	384,000	442,000	511,000	503,
Grain and Pulse	370,000	407,000	21,000	485,000	639,
Hardware, Cutlery, Implements, etc.	1,034,000	977,000	953,000	1,060,000	1,228
Horses	241,000	145,000	215,000	198,000	318,
Instruments, Apparatus, etc.	216,000	204,000	227,000	260,000	309,
Ivory, and Manufactures of	154,000	163,000	161,000	187,000	112,
Jewellery and Precious Stones	427,000	381,000	350,000	735,000	481,
Leather, and Manufactures of	139,000	123,000	132,000	127,000	118,
Liquors:					
Malt, etc.	317,000	308,000	321,000	304,000	313,
Spirits	551,000	547,000	571,000	571,000	576,
Wines	229,000	203,000	206,000	190,000	189,
Machinery and Millwork	2,339,000	1,905,000	2,037,000	1,695,000	1,505,
Matches	190,000	278,000	253,000	232,000	265
Metals:					
Iron	1,846,000	1,915,000	1,539,000	1,613,000	2,0
Steel	642,000	758,000	684,000	667,000	9
Copper	716,000	947,000	748,000	353,000	6
Other Metals	434,000	500,000	482,000	528,000	62
Oils:					
Mineral	2,051,000	2,425,000	2,163,000	2,120,000	2,305
Animal and Vegetable	234,000	330,000	205,000	164,000	199
Paints and Colours, etc.	227,000	216,000	223,000	231,000	269,
Porcelain and Earthenware	143,000	137,000	125,000	133,000	134,
Provisions	1,025,000	1,137,000	1,021,000	1,125,000	1,317
Railway Plant and Rolling Stock (for Companies' Lines)	1,706,000	1,839,000	1,883 000	1,851,000	894,
Salt	419,000	579,000	441,000	408,000	377
Silk:					
Raw	584,000	447,000	532,000	384,000	678,
Manufactures	911,000	766,000	908,000	753,000	1,111,
Spices	403,000	497,000	593,000	611,000	586,
Sugar	2,101,000	3,196,000	2,678,000	2,251,000	3,770,
Tobacco	175,000	190,000	195,000	223,000	254,
Umbrellas	205,000	224,000	162,000	182,000	180,0
Wood, and Manufactures of	188,000	169,000	118,000	150,000	174,0
Woollen Manufactures	1,128,000	766,000	1,016,000	1,172,000	1,408,0
All other Articles	2,212,000	1,957,000	1,954,000	1,950,000	2,290,0
Total	47,863,000	46,178,000	45,587,000	47,141,000	50,852,0

great bulk of the trade, have fallen off in quantity in recent yea[illegible] while white (bleached) goods have slightly increased, and coloure[illegible]

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRIVATE MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO BRITISH INDIA BY SEA FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN DOLLARS.

Articles.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
	$	$	$	$	$
pparel	5,055,000	4,080,000	4,600,000	4,880,000	5,135,000
rms, Ammunition, etc.	865,000	855,000	965,000	845,000	780,000
ooks, Paper, and Stationery ..	3,175,000	2,690,000	3,280,000	3,110,000	3,330,000
uilding and Engineering Materials	555,000	685,000	675,000	640,000	710,000
rriages, Carts, etc.	750,000	950,000	1,060,000	885,000	785,000
emicals	1,290,000	1,520,000	1,415,000	1,500,000	1,840,000
al, Coke, etc.	3,265,000	1,785,000	2,320,000	2,700,000	1,020,000
otton :					
Raw	425,000	345,000	290,000	1,540,000	2,335,000
Twist and Yarn	11,085,000	11,645,000	8,505,000	8,165,000	8,295,000
Manufactures	88,080,000	76,340,000	82,260,000	90,005,000	91,155,000
rugs and Medicines	1,695,000	1,845,000	1,725,000	1,680,000	2,055,000
eing and Tanning Materials ..	2,440,000	2,560,000	2,590,000	2,145,000	2,255,000
ax Manufactures	505,000	520,000	455,000	490,000	615,000
ass and Glassware	2,345,000	1,920,000	2,210,000	2,555,000	2,515,000
ain and Pulse	1,850,000	2,035,000	105,000	2,425,000	3,195,000
ardware, Cutlery, Implements, etc.	5,170,000	4,885,000	4,765,000	5,300,000	6,140,000
orses	1,205,000	725,000	1,075,000	990,000	1,590,000
struments, Apparatus, etc. ..	1,080,000	1,020,000	1,135,000	1,300,000	1,545,000
ory, and Manufactures of ..	770,000	815,000	805,000	935,000	560,000
wellery and Precious Stones ..	2,135,000	1,905,000	1,750,000	3,675,000	2,405,000
ather, and Manufactures of ..	695,000	615,000	660,000	635,000	590,000
quors :					
Malt, etc.	1,585,000	1,540,000	1,605,000	1,520,000	1,565,000
Spirits	2,755,000	2,735,000	2,855,000	2,855,000	2,880,000
Wines	1,145,000	1,015,000	1,030,000	950,000	945,000
chinery and Millwork	11,695,000	9,525,000	10,185,000	8,475,000	7,525,000
tches	950,000	1,390,000	1,265,000	1,160,000	1,325,000
tals :					
Iron	9,230,000	9,575,000	7,695,000	8,065,000	10,465,000
Steel	3,210,000	3,790,000	3,420,000	3,335,000	4,775,000
Copper	3,580,000	4,735,000	3,740,000	1,765,000	3,055,000
Other Metals	2,170,000	2,500,000	2,410,000	2,640,000	3,145,000
l :					
Mineral	10,255,000	12,125,000	10,815,000	10,600,000	11,525,000
nimal and Vegetable	1,170,000	1,650,000	1,025,000	820,000	995,000
nts and Colours, etc.	1,135,000	1,080,000	1,115,000	1,155,000	1,345,000
celain and Earthenware ..	715,000	685,000	625,000	665,000	670,000
visions	5,125,000	5,685,000	5,105,000	5,625,000	6,585,000
way Plant and Rolling Stock (for Companies' Lines)	8,530,000	9,195,000	9,415,000	9,255,000	4,470,000
.. ..	2,095,000	2,395,000	2,205,000	2,040,000	1,885,000
:					
aw	2,920,000	2,235,000	2,660,000	1,920,000	3,390,000
anufactures	4,555,000	3 830,000	4,540,000	3,765,000	5,555,000
es	2,015,000	2,485,000	2,965,000	3,055,000	2,930,000
ar	10,505,000	15,950,000	13,390,000	11,255,000	18,350,000
bacco	875,000	950,000	975,000	1,115,000	1,270,000
mbrellas	1,025,000	1,120,000	810,000	910,000	900,000
ood, and Manufactures of ..	940,000	845,000	590,000	750,000	870,000
oollen Manufactures	5,640,000	3,830,000	5,080,000	5,860,000	7,040,000
other Articles	11,060,000	9,785,000	9,770,000	9,750,000	11,450,000
Total	239,315,000	230,890,000	227,935,000	235,705,000	254,260,000

ted, and dyed goods have fluctuated considerably. Recovery in y goods, which are increasingly produced in India, seems impro-

IMPORTS OF COTTON TWIST AND YARN AND MANUFACTURE FROM PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN POUNDS STERLING.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
COTTON TWIST & YARN:	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom ...	2,153,000	2,257,000	1,618,000	1,564,000	1,572,00
Austria-Hungary ...	35,000	32,000	30,000	16,000	21,0
Other Countries ...	29,000	40,000	53,000	53,000	66,0
Total	2,217,000	2,329,000	1,701,000	1,633,000	1,659,
COTTON MANUFACTURES:					
United Kingdom ...	17,210,000	14,766,000	15,881,000	17,276,000	17,368,0
Austria-Hungary ...	133,000	116,000	148,000	164,000	136,0
Germany	39,000	45,000	67,000	96,000	118,0
Holland	56,000	63,000	74,000	84,000	134,0
Italy	37,000	55,000	77,000	152,000	153,0
United States ...	64,000	119,000	60,000	51,000	110,0
Other Countries ...	77,000	104,000	145,000	178,000	212,0
Total	17,616,000	15,268,000	16,452,000	18,001,000	18,231,0

IMPORTS OF COTTON TWIST AND YARN AND MANUFACTUI FROM PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN DOLLARS.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-
COTTON TWIST AND YARN:	$	$	$	$	$
United Kingdom ...	10,765,000	11,285,000	8,090,000	7,820,000	7,860,
Austria-Hungary ...	175,000	160,000	150,000	80,000	105
Other Countries ...	145,000	200,000	265,000	265,000	330
Total	11,085,000	11,645,000	8,505,000	8,165,000	8,295
COTTON MANUFACTURES:					
United Kingdom ...	86,050,000	73,830,000	79,405,000	86,380,000	86,840,0
Austria-Hungary ...	665,000	580,000	740,000	820,000	680,0
Germany	195,000	225,000	335,000	480,000	590,0
Holland	280,000	315,000	370,000	420,000	670,0
Italy	185,000	275,900	385,000	760,000	765,0
United States ...	320,000	595,000	305,000	255,000	550,0
Other Countries ...	385,000	520,000	720,000	890,000	1,060,0
Total	88,080,000	76,340,000	82,260,000	90,005,000	91,155,

le. Handkerchiefs, shawls, lace and net, canvas and hosiery, are not yet being supplanted to any great extent by the native manufactures. But the general progress of the indigenous industry, seen in the wider resort to fine spinning and in the increasing number of up-country mills for the supply of local wants, points to a time when India will be able to furnish practically the whole f the cotton goods she requires.

Imports of Metals and Metal Manufactures.—Iron is the ost important of the imported metals, though it has shown little ɔgress in recent years, mainly owing to its replacement by steel, rticularly the cheaper and commoner kinds of steel used in hoop- g cotton-bales, etc. The substitution of ready-made tools and ıplements for the rough native ones formerly made from imported ɔn, and the competition of pig-iron and castings from the Barakar ɔnworks, are further causes of the decline in imported iron. Steel increasing in importance. Together steel and iron form about ¾ per cent. in quantity of the imported metals. The kinds of iron iefly imported are pig, sheets and plates, galvanized and tinned, r, pipes and tubes, nails, screws, rivets and washers, wire, and gle, bolt, and rod. Steel is imported mainly in the form of bars, ıtes and sheets, beams, pillars, girders, and bridgework, and ops. In the supply of iron and steel Belgium has broken wn the practical monopoly once possessed by England, mainly ing to the cheapness of its products; while the United States sent increased supplies in recent years. Austria-Hungary w practically monopolizes the trade in enamelled ironware. Of ıer metals, copper alone is of any note. It is imported for the nufacture of domestic and other utensils, and the demand fluc- tes greatly according to price and according to the material ıdition of the people. Lead is imported mainly for tea-chests.

The great extensions in railway construction in recent years, as ll as the constant need of repairs and renewals, have caused creasing imports of permanent-way material and rolling-stock. ost of the lines are now in the hands of Government, and the ports for the State lines are consequently much larger than for mpanies' lines. Imports of railway stores from other countries an England have been comparatively small, though in recent years merica has supplied some steel rails, engines, etc., the orders rning on lower prices and quicker delivery.

IMPORTS OF THE CHIEF METALS AND METAL MANUFACTURES FROM THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN POUNDS STERLING.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
IRON (including Government Stores):	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	1,489,000	1,622,000	1,197,000	1,427,000	1,669,000
Belgium	477,000	398,000	373,000	284,000	487,000
United States	—	2,000	20,000	89,000	49,0
Other Countries	92,000	87,000	74,000	66,000	85,0
Total	2,058,000	2,109,000	1,664,000	1,866,000	2,290,0
STEEL (including Government Stores):					
United Kingdom	396,000	433,000	396,000	470,000	573,0
Belgium	287,000	358,000	299,000	204,000	340,0
United States	—	—	11,000	46,000	56,0
Other Countries	15,000	20,000	20,000	18,000	71,0
Total	698,000	811,000	726,000	738,000	1,040,0
RAILWAY PLANT (Rails, Sleepers, etc., for State and Companies' Lines):					
United Kingdom	2,570,000	2,352,000	1,736,000	1,429,000	1,183,0
United States	—	22,000	32,000	39,000	73,0
Other Countries	14,000	6,000	4,000	13,000	12,0
Total	2,584,000	2,380,000	1,772,000	1,481,000	1,268,0
RAILWAY ROLLING-STOCK (for State and Companies' Lines):					
United Kingdom	727,000	1,185,000	1,466,000	1,924,000	1,263,0
United States	—	—	11,000	105,000	36,0
Other Countries	—	3,000	1,000	25,000	30,0
Total	727,000	1,188,000	1,478,000	2,054,000	1,329,0
MACHINERY AND MILLWORK (including Government Stores):					
United Kingdom	2,358,000	1,927,000	2,058,000	1,772,000	1,529,0
United States	5,000	10,000	9,000	20,000	24,0
Other Countries	23,000	17,000	19,000	33,000	37,0
Total	2,386,000	1,954,000	2,086,000	1,825,000	1,590,0
HARDWARE AND CUTLERY (including Government Stores):					
United Kingdom	958,000	890,000	831,000	898,000	1,027,0
Austria-Hungary	66,000	59,000	47,000	84,000	110,0
Belgium	32,000	46,000	46,000	45,000	57,0
Germany	102,000	79,000	88,000	107,000	155,0
United States	8,000	7,000	20,000	16,000	26,0
Other Countries	17,000	14,000	14,000	18,000	25,0
Total	1,183,000	1,095,000	1,046,000	1,168,000	1,400,0

Imports of machinery and millwork have increased with the ind trial development of India. The requirements to be met are chie those of cotton and jute mills and tea-gardens. This head inclu steam-engines and parts, which, in fact, constitute the largest pro tion of the total value. America is sending larger quantities engines, boilers, agricultural and pumping machinery, etc., England still has the bulk of the trade.

IMPORTS OF THE CHIEF METALS AND METAL MANUFACTURES FROM THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN DOLLARS.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
IRON (including Government Stores):	$	$	$	$	$
United Kingdom	7,445,000	8,110,000	5,985,000	7,135,000	8,345,000
Belgium	2,385,000	1,990,000	1,865,000	1,420,000	2,435,000
United States	—	10,000	100,000	445,000	245,000
Other Countries	460,000	435,000	370,000	330,000	425,000
Total	10,290,000	10,545,000	8,320,000	9,330,000	11,450,000
STEEL (including Government Stores):					
United Kingdom	1,980,000	2,165,000	1,980,000	2,350,000	2,865,000
Belgium	1,435,000	1,790,000	1,495,000	1,020,000	1,700,000
United States	—	—	55,000	230,000	280,000
Other Countries	75,000	100,000	100,000	90,000	355,000
Total	3,490,000	4,055,000	3,630,000	3,690,000	5,200,000
RAILWAY PLANT (Rails, Sleepers, etc., for State and Companies' Lines):					
United Kingdom	12,850,000	11,760,000	8,680,000	7,145,000	5,915,000
United States	—	110,000	160,000	195,000	365,000
Other Countries	70,000	30,000	20,000	65,000	60,000
Total	12,920,000	11,900,000	8,860,000	7,405,000	6,340,000
RAILWAY ROLLING-STOCK (for State and Companies' Lines):					
United Kingdom	3,635,000	5,925,000	7,330,000	9,620,000	6,315,000
United States	—	—	55,000	525,000	180,000
Other Countries	—	15,000	5,000	125,000	150,000
Total	3,635,000	5,940,000	7,390,000	10,270,000	6,645,000
MACHINERY AND MILLWORK (including Government Stores):					
United Kingdom	11,790,000	9,635,000	10,290,000	8,860,000	7,645,000
United States	25,000	50,000	45,000	100,000	120,000
Other Countries	115,000	85,000	95,000	165,000	135,000
Total	11,930,000	9,770,000	10,430,000	9,125,000	7,900,000
HARDWARE AND CUTLERY (including Government Stores):					
United Kingdom	4,790,000	4,450,000	4,155,000	4,490,000	5,135,000
Austria-Hungary	330,000	295,000	235,000	420,000	550,000
Belgium	160,000	230,000	230,000	225,000	285,000
Germany	510,000	395,000	440,000	535,000	775,000
United States	40,000	35,000	100,000	80,000	130,000
Other Countries	85,000	70,000	70,000	90,000	125,000
Total	5,915,000	5,475,000	5,230,000	5,840,000	7,000,000

Hardware and cutlery comprise, besides ordinary cutlery and ironmongery, various implements and tools and sewing-machines. Sewing-machines are increasingly used by natives in the bazaars. The articles under hardware and cutlery have greatly increased in number and variety in recent years, and the cheap wares supplied by Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Belgium have competed actively with British products. These articles have doubtless progressed,

IMPORTS OF SUGAR FROM THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN POUNDS STERLING.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
	£	£	£	£	£
Mauritius	1,169,000	1,094,000	1,279,000	1,068,000	1,599,
Austria-Hungary	87,000	696,000	723,000	569,000	1,032,
Germany	584,000	853,000	289,000	41,000	305,
China, Hong Kong... ...	119,000	223,000	140,000	244,000	384,
Java	66,000	117,000	113,000	171,000	150,
Other Countries	76,000	207,000	134,000	158,000	300,
Total	2,101,000	3,190,000	2,678,000	2,251,000	3,770,

IMPORTS OF SUGAR FROM THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN DOLLA

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
	$	$	$	$	$
Mauritius	5,845,000	5,470,000	6,395,000	5,340,000	7,995,0
Austria-Hungary ...	435,000	3,480,000	3,615,000	2,845,000	5,160,0
Germany	2,920,000	4,265,000	1,445,000	205,000	1,525,0
China, Hong Kong ...	595,000	1,115,000	700,000	1,220,000	1,920,0
Java	330,000	585,000	565,000	855,000	750,0
Other Countries ...	380,000	1,035,000	670,000	790,000	1,500,0
Total	10,505,000	15,950,000	13,390,000	11,255,000	18,850,0

owing to their cheapness, which forms the chief recommendation the poorer natives. The United States has lately sent more ha ware and electrical apparatus.

Imports of Sugar.—The imports of sugar have shown enormous growth in the last twenty-five years. Until about t year 1895 Mauritius supplied the bulk of India's demands, b the production of beet-sugar at a rapidly diminishing cost, and th aid given to German and Austro-Hungarian sugars by State bounti have enabled these European sugars to compete severely wi Mauritius and Asiatic cane-sugar in the Indian markets. In 189 the Government of India imposed countervailing duties on bount fed sugars on the ground that they menaced the native suga

PORTS OF MINERAL OIL FROM THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN POUNDS STERLING.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
	£	£	£	£	£
ssia	1,231,000	1,373,000	1,339,000	1,565,000	1,870,000
ited States	605,000	720,000	637,000	469,000	320,000
natra	17,000	219,000	90,000	—	—
ited Kingdom	98,000	93,000	84,000	64,000	90,000
ier Countries	100,000	20,000	13,000	22,000	25,000
Total	2,051,000	2,425,000	2,163,000	2,120,000	2,305,000

PORTS OF MINERAL OIL FROM THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES IN DOLLARS.

Countries.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
	$	$	$	$	$
ussia	6,155,000	6,865,000	6,695,000	7,825,000	9,350,000
nited States ...	3,025,000	3,600,000	3,185,000	2,345,040	1,600,000
umatra	85,000	1,095,000	450,000	—	—
nited Kingdom ...	490,000	465,000	420,000	320,000	450,000
ther Countries ...	500,000	100,000	65,000	110,000	125,000
Total	10,255,000	12,125,000	10,815,000	10,600,000	11,525,000

ustry. It will be seen that Mauritius still furnishes the largest ount of sugar, but Austria-Hungary has greatly improved its ition; while German sugar, after a temporary decline, is again ancing. Supplies of cane-sugar from China and Java have also reased.

Imports of Mineral Oil.—The natives have learned to appre-te the cheapness and superior brightness of imported mineral oils compared with their own impure vegetable oils. Russian oil, hich is increasingly sent in bulk, has by its cheapness completely t-distanced American case oil, although it is inferior in quality. he enhanced output of Burma mineral oil, especially in the last o years, serves to provide a considerable part of India's needs. umatra, after sending oil for three years, ceased to do so, but new

wells are now said to be in operation there, and the trade i possibly be resumed.

Sea-borne Exports of Merchandise.—While manufactu articles constitute the bulk of the imports, exports consist m of raw materials or partly manufactured goods, rice and raw co heading the list. The chief exports may be classified as food-s (rice, wheat, tea, and coffee), raw materials (seeds, jute, cotton, teak, coal, wool, hides and skins), dyes and narcotics (indigo opium), and goods wholly or partly manufactured (cotton yarn cloth, jute bags and cloth, dressed hides and skins, etc.). The portion of this last class is increasing.

Rice is largely cultivated in Burma for exportation, and for three-fourths of the Burma exports. It is husked at the cl Burmese ports. Indian rice is distributed all over the world, there is increasing competition with India in the rice trade, especia from Siam, Java, and Cochin China. Rice which would ordinar be exported abroad is diverted to India proper during famine tim hence the figures for most years in the table are rather bel normal. Rice is the only article now subject to an export duty.

Wheat from India was at one time expected to compete severe with American wheat in European markets, but seriously bad harves in India always cause a practical stoppage of exports, and Euro could not depend on India for that continuity of supply which essential. Indian wheat exports reach a high level only when cr failures in North America, Argentina, or Russia cause a sensible in prices, and when India has at the same time a surplus to spa European demand is the chief factor in prices. Karachi and Boml are the great wheat ports. It should be noticed that the rice ar enjoy a more uniform and favourable climate than the wheat area that wheat goes to Europe mainly for food, while rice is used f food, starch, and distillation; and that the demand for rice is stead while that for wheat is fluctuating, the Indian wheat merely servi to fill up deficiencies in markets normally supplied from oth sources.

The export of oilseeds has greatly extended in recent year The most important is linseed, the bulk of which goes to Englan Germany, and France. Next come sesamum or gingelly (til jinjili), exported mainly to France, Belgium, and Italy; rapesee taken chiefly by France, Belgium, and Germany; castor-seed, se

nly to England and France; and poppy-seed, mostly exported rance and Belgium.

ne of the best-known Indian exports is tea, the production of h has extended enormously in spite of a steady decline in s. Low prices, however, have stimulated consumption. The rior strength and quality of Indian tea have given it a popu- y over teas that are lower in price. About nine-tenths of an tea is exported to the United Kingdom, but some portion this is re-exported to Europe and America. The undoubted riority of Indian over other teas should give it a much wider in the United States and Canada when the preparation of en tea for those markets is undertaken.

ndian coffee has suffered from severe vicissitudes—bad seasons, ase, and, above all, the enormous production of cheap Brazilian e. But the generally superior quality of Indian coffee should re its sale even at higher prices.

ndia has a practical monopoly of jute cultivation, and the quantity orted has largely increased, while values have advanced still . But jute is subject to violent fluctuations in output, quality, price, and the trade is consequently very speculative. The crop g grown on a limited area in Bengal, the season is the most erial factor in the supply, and the whole crop is affected. Again, ite prices rule low, the cultivators plant rice or other crops ad, until restricted supplies of jute cause a rise in price, which mpts further cultivation of the fibre.

Jute manufactures now constitute one of the chief Indian industries, an increasing quantity of raw material is absorbed by the cutta mills. Raw jute and jute manufactures form together the ding commodity among exports. The export returns, however, incomplete, since they can take no account of the large quantities bags and cloth sent out as coverings for rice, seeds, cotton, and er produce. The foreign demand for jute cloth has grown markably in recent years, more than one-half going to the United tates, which also takes much raw jute. Australia is the best stomer for gunny-bags. England takes large supplies of both raw d manufactured jute, partly for re-export. Germany and France y a large quantity of raw jute, while gunny-bags and cloth are idely distributed in Asia, South America, and Europe. Calcutta, e centre of the jute industry, has the advantage of cheap and

abundant labour, and plentiful supplies of raw material produced the immediate neighbourhood.

India exports large quantities of short-stapled raw cotton, ch to Japan; but considerable supplies are also sent to the Euro Continent and to China. There is a large and increasing expo Indian cotton yarns of low counts (20s. and under) to Ch Bombay and Madras export grey or coloured cotton piece g for Asiatic and African consumption.

There is normally a large export of hides and skins, but this tr is especially brisk in times of drought, when the lack of fodder ca high cattle mortality. During most of the years shown in following table these special conditions prevailed. Horns a animal bones, which are crushed at the chief ports, are also larg exported. The United States takes most of the raw skins (sh goat, deer, etc.), while most of the raw hides go to the Contin The exportation of tanned and dressed hides and skins has increa faster than that of the raw material.

Opium is a Government monopoly, and its manufacture is c ducted under careful restrictions. The article yields a revenu about £4,500,000 ($22,500,000) annually. China is still the lar consumer, though Chinese opium is being sold in increas quantities, and tends to diminish the demand for the much fi but more costly Indian drug.

Indigo is suffering from the competition of the synthetic indigo duced in Germany. The best Indian indigo is cultivated in Be under European supervision. As the crop is subject to great vicis tudes, which affect both quantity and quality, and cause wide va tions in price, and as vegetable indigo has to compete both wi artificial indigo and aniline dyes, there is a tendency to restrict cultivation. Fruitful efforts have recently been made to increase output per acre and to improve the quality of the dye. Althou Bengal (or Behar) indigo is the best and the best known, Mad exports a considerable quantity of indigo of an inferior quality.

Among other exports raw wool is the most important. Fine hand woven Indian shawls are less in demand owing to change of fashion and carpets and rugs are now the leading articles in an expandin export of woollen goods. Bengal silk and silk goods were on important, but both are of comparatively low quality, and have there fore suffered in competition with those from other countries. Sal petre still forms a considerable export, though not so great a

NTITY OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRIVATE MERCHANDISE EXPORTED (AND RE-EXPORTED) TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Articles.		1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
tc.	*Tons*	137,509	212,861	327,247	218,877	541,453
... ...	*Cwt.*	215,986	233,108	281,556	288,606	248,144
xcluding Cordage) ...	,,	292,881	338,188	367,884	428,068	462,256
:						
... ...	,,	5,216,751	3,722,999	5,411,626	4,373,474	3,576,838
t and Yarn	*Lbs.*	197,391,297	201,725,688	221,164,381	242,601,755	119,296,641
e Goods	*Yards*	144,949,651	131,210,155	130,365,090	137,057,484	130,932,049
and Pulse:						
ee	*Cwt.*	28,281,277	26,834,552	37,946,886	32,278,438	31,342,788
eat	,,	1,910,626	2,392,607	19,520,496	9,704,087	50,021
eat Flour	,,	599,791	505,283	682,662	557,894	497,346
er Sorts	,,	989,599	1,108,551	1,320,474	1,554,981	803,415
and Skins, Raw ...	,,	654,723	908,905	812,572	1,411,516	1,471,743
,, Dressed & anned	,,	341,729	366,198	297,571	323,299	469,969
o	,,	169,523	133,849	135,187	111,420	102,491
Raw	,,	11,464,356	15,023,325	9,864,545	9,[illegible]5,245	12,414,582
Bags	*No.*	165,945,531	197,619,914	180,896,140	168,823,849	202,908,199
Cloth	*Yards*	169,410,010	242,951,051	280,382,410	307,021,259	365,214,990
of all sorts)	*Cwt.*	206,470	218,803	182,116	238,450	227,068
ures (chiefly animal bones)	*Tons*	76,293	72,664	74,971	110,927	113,465
ls	*Cwt.*	1,318,054	1,869,438	1,476,554	2,404,479	3,025,773
mainly vegetable) ...	*Galls.*	4,684,933	4,257,917	5,496,210	6,290,783	5,383,587
m	*Cwt.*	86,386	78,280	92,827	93,378	96,881
bran	*Tons*	102,416	118,491	111,515	136,006	127,503
etre	*Cwt.*	528,452	417,786	365,256	397,385	346,388
... ...	,,	11,400,745	12,562,420	19,284,039	15,786,779	10,997,947
w	*Lbs.*	1,583,439	1,728,684	1,564,369	2,080,513	1,701,794
ce Goods	*Yards*	2,821,258	2,088,450	1,812,268	1,698,022	1,717,307
es...	*Lbs.*	34,061,537	27,514,587	32,804,163	27,725,003	24,131,854
r	*Cwt.*	1,348,473	690,227	498,567	693,965	609,457
... ...	*Lbs.*	153,482,194	154,121,582	159,805,650	176,386,820	192,193,469
Timber	*Cub. tons*	64,415	81,935	77,454	77,822	74,374
Raw	*Lbs.*	41,444,139	44,962,232	38,613,146	41,703,826	29,020,487

N.B.—A ton = 2,240 lbs., and a cwt. = 112 lbs.

erly. Coir and cocoanut oils and other products of the cocoanut are increasingly exported from Madras. Tobacco exports are ogressive. Teak exports have fluctuated widely, owing to st restrictions and Siamese competition, and to variations in the nands for shipbuilding and railways. Spices are less prominent an formerly in Indian trade; but pepper and ginger are still of me importance. The export of lac and lac goods is an old trade, d business has recently shown a revival. Among exports exhibiting recent progress are rice-bran and oil-cake for cattle-food, troleum, paraffin wax, coal, mica, manganese ore, bristles and res, provisions, and paper-making materials.

Re-exports of Merchandise.—Re-exports by sea form only out five per cent. of the total imports into India. The items are ny and various, but by far the most important are European

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRIVATE MERCHANDI EXPORTED (AND RE-EXPORTED) BY SEA TO FOREIGN COUNTR IN POUNDS STERLING.

Articles.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	19
	£	£	£	£	
Apparel	241,000	205,000	194,000	196,000	
Coal, Coke, etc.	95,000	143,000	224,000	219,000	
Coffee	1,079,000	1,040,000	1,190,000	1,004,000	
Coir, and Manufactures of	179,000	210,000	225,000	259,000	
Cotton :					
Raw	8,648,000	5,915,000	7,460,000	6,617,000	6,7
Twist and Yarn	4,841,000	4,713,000	4,457,000	4,672,000	2,82
Manufactures	1,801,000	1,665,000	1,642,000	1,741,000	1,8
Drugs and Medicines (excluding Opium)	91,000	98,000	97,000	165,000	1
Dyeing and Tanning Materials :					
Indigo	2,914,000	2,038,000	1,980,000	1,795,000	1,4
Other sorts	446,000	340,000	353,000	461,000	4
Grain and Pulse :					
Rice	7,968,000	7,840,000	10,543,000	8,733,000	8,5
Wheat	558,000	894,000	6,480,000	2,606,000	2
Other sorts	707,000	674,000	1,111,000	730,000	54
Hides and Skins :					
Raw	2,157,000	2,997,000	2,770,000	4,593,000	4,65
Dressed and Tanned	2,511,000	2,548,000	2,197,000	2,383,000	2,90
Jute :					
Raw	7,034,000	6,753,000	4,627,000	5,381,000	7,24
Manufactures	3,476,000	3,954,000	3,866,000	4,177,000	5,22
Lac (of all sorts)	933,000	714,000	581,000	758,000	7
Manures (chiefly Animal Bones)	282,000	263,000	272,000	409,000	2
Metals	188,000	169,000	159,000	239,000	4
Oils (mainly Vegetable)	434,000	457,000	611,000	595,000	4
Opium	5,349,000	4,065,000	4,751,000	5,469,000	6,30
Provisions	413,000	429,000	489,000	500,000	40
Rice-bran	170,000	179,000	163,000	216,000	23
Saltpetre	381,000	266,000	233,000	256,000	22
Seeds :					
Linseed	2,370,000	1,913,000	3,422,000	3,002,000	2,9
Rape or Mustard	864,000	1,652,000	1,878,000	1,352,000	8
Gingelly, Til, or Sesamum	885,000	1,068,000	1,524,000	1,340,000	1,0
Other Sorts (Poppy, Castor, etc.)	1,224,000	1,101,000	1,077,000	1,046,000	1,20
Silk :					
Raw	359,000	358,000	318,000	477,000	35
Manufactures	159,000	123,000	117,000	117,000	11
Spices	344,000	325,000	426,000	387,000	3
Sugar	611,000	294,000	255,000	301,000	1
Tea	5,351,000	5,664,000	5,516,000	6,118,000	6,4
Wood, and Manufactures of	536,000	722,000	727,000	731,000	7
Wool :					
Raw	1,233,000	1,334,000	1,150,000	1,201,000	8
Manufactures	167,000	169,000	169,000	196,000	2
All other Articles	2,277,000	1,733,000	1,894,000	2,209,000	2,40
Indian Produce and Manufactures	66,587,000	62,524,000	72,900,000	70,456,000	69,470,0
Foreign ditto (Re-exports)	2,689,000	2,501,000	2,248,000	2,195,000	2,139,0
Total	69,276,000	65,025,000	75,148,000	72,651,000	71,609,0

cotton goods and metals shipped to the Persian, Arabian, and Ea African coasts. Ivory, gums, spices, pearls, wool, etc., comi from those coasts, are largely re-exported to England. Owing

LUE OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRIVATE MERCHANDISE EXPORTED (AND RE-EXPORTED) BY SEA TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN DOLLARS.

Articles.	1896-7.	1897-8.	1898-9.	1899-1900.	1900-1.
	$	$	$	$	$
el	1,205,000	1,025,000	970,000	980,000	1,180,000
Coke, etc.	475,000	715,000	1,120,000	1,095,000	1,980,000
.. ..	5,395,000	5,200,000	5,950,000	5,020,000	4,110,000
and Manufactures of	895,000	1,050,000	1,125,000	1,295,000	1,410,000
n :					
w	43,240,000	29,575,000	37,300,000	33,085,000	33,765,000
ist and Yarn	24,205,000	23,565,000	22,285,000	23,360,000	14,145,000
nufactures	9,005,000	8,325,000	8,210,000	8,705,000	9,020,000
and Medicines (excluding pium)	455,000	490,000	485,000	825,000	770,000
g and Tanning Materials :					
igo	14,570,000	10,190,000	9,900,000	8,975,000	7,120,000
er sorts	2,230,000	1,700,000	1,765,000	2,305,000	2,030,000
and Pulse :					
e	39,840,000	39,200,000	52,715,000	43,635,000	44,085,000
eat	2,790,000	4,470,000	32,400,000	13,030,000	100,000
her sorts	3,535,000	3,370,000	5,555,000	3,650,000	2,715,000
s and Skins :					
w	10,785,000	14,985,000	13,850,000	22,965,000	23,295,000
ssed and Tanned	12,555,000	12,740,000	10,985,000	11,915,000	14,985,000
:					
w	35,170,000	33,765,000	23,135,000	26,905,000	36,225,000
nufactures	17,380,000	19,770,000	19,380,000	20,885,000	26,120,000
(of all sorts)	4,665,000	3,570,000	2,905,000	3,790,000	3,550,000
ures (chiefly Animal Bones) ..	1,410,000	1,315,000	1,360,000	2,045,000	1,970,000
ls	940,000	845,000	795,000	1,195,000	2,140,000
(mainly Vegetable)	2,170,000	2,285,000	3,055,000	2,975,000	2,455,000
m	26,745,000	20,325,000	23,755,000	27,345,000	31,520,000
isions	2,065,000	2,145,000	2,445,000	2,500,000	2,340,000
-bran	850,000	895,000	815,000	1,080,000	1,175,000
petre	1,905,000	1,330,000	1,165,000	1,280,000	1,130,000
s :					
nseed	11,850,000	9,565,000	17,110,000	15,010,000	14,855,000
pe or Mustard	4,320,000	8,260,000	9,390,000	6,760,000	4,440,000
igelly, Til, or Sesamum ..	4,425,000	5,340,000	7,620,000	6,700,000	5,185,000
her Sorts (Poppy, Castor, etc.)	6,120,000	5,505,000	5,385,000	5,230,000	6,030,000
:					
w	1,795,000	1,790,000	1,590,000	2,385,000	1,770,000
nufactures	795,000	615,000	585,000	585,000	595,000
s	1,720,000	1,625,000	2,130,000	1,935,000	1,860,000
r	3,055,000	1,470,000	1,275,000	1,505,000	845,000
.. ..	26,755,000	28,320,000	27,580,000	30,590,000	32,275,000
, and Manufactures of ..	2,680,000	3,610,000	3,635,000	3,655,000	3,580,000
.. ..	6,165,000	6,670,000	5,750,000	6,005,000	4,100,000
nufactures	835,000	845,000	845,000	980,000	1,140,000
ther Articles	11,385,000	8,665,000	9,470,000	11,045,000	12,035,000
ian Produce and Manufactures	332,935,000	312,620,000	364,500,000	352,280,000	347,350,000
eign ditto (Re-exports)	13,445,000	12,505,000	11,240,000	10,975,000	10,695,000
Total	346,380,000	325,125,000	375,740,000	363,255,000	358,045,000

increase of direct communication between those coasts and rope, India's re-export trade, which is chiefly concentrated in mbay, shows a tendency to decline.

CHAPTER V.

PORTS, HARBOURS, AND SHIPPING.

Chief ports—Port trusts—Harbours—Tonnage cleared—Shipping compa
Freight rates.

Chief Ports.—Although India has a very extensive seaboa
is deficient in good harbours. By far the most important port
Calcutta and Bombay, followed at a long distance by Ran
Karachi, and Madras. There is a large number of smaller por
which Chittagong in Bengal; Moulmein, Bassein, and Akya
Burma; and Mangalore, Cannanore, Tellicherry, Calicut and C
(on the west coast), Tuticorin, Negapatam, Cuddalore, Masulipa
Cocanada, Vizagapatam, and Bimlipatam (on the east coast), a
Madras, deserve special mention in connexion with foreign t
The five chief ports, which together receive 98 per cent. of
imports of foreign merchandise and despatch 90 per cent. o
exports of merchandise to foreign countries, are the capitals
chief outlets of the five littoral provinces, and are also great ra
termini.

Calcutta, the capital and the premier port, is a receiving an
tributing centre, not only for Bengal, but for Upper India, p
Central India, and Assam. It is fed with products brought
network of railways, and by the great river highways, the Ga
and Brahmaputra. It has factories, foundries, and many mino
dustries. Calcutta imports chiefly cotton piece-goods (espec
grey), cotton twist and yarn, iron, steel, copper, and other me
apparel, drugs, tobacco, hardware and cutlery, glass and glassw
machinery and millwork, railway materials, salt, spices, provisi
liquors, sugar, woollen goods, and petroleum. It has almos
monopoly of exports of jute and jute manufactures, coal, lac,
saltpetre, and has large exports of tea, opium, seeds, rice, ind

and skins, silk, etc. Calcutta has the greater share of the with Europe, and an increasing trade with other continents. y has almost as large a European trade as Calcutta, and the trade with African and Asiatic countries. Bombay, which ade fair to surpass Calcutta as a port, has been greatly afflicted nt years by the evil consequences of famine and plague, and decline in its entrepot trade with the Persian Gulf and the frican coast. But Bombay has great advantages of position, hree trunk lines bring thither the produce of Western India, eccan, and the Central Provinces. The imports of Bombay ble those of Calcutta, except that it imports considerable quan- of coal, dyeing and tanning-materials, and silks, but not salt. ief exports of produce are wheat, seeds, opium, and raw cotton. ay is the chief centre of the cotton industry in India, and ts large quantities of cotton yarn and piece-goods. Karachi, ort of Sind and the Indus Valley, is chiefly noted for its large ctuating exports of wheat and seeds. Its trade has grown y in recent years. Rangoon is the flourishing port of pros- s Burma. Its trade consists mainly of the export of rice, which reatly expanded in the last forty years, and of teak. Madras is y within the main channels of foreign trade, and it has smaller bilities of development than Rangoon or Karachi, but it has ge coasting trade with other Indian ports and with Ceylon. over, Madras has only half the foreign trade of the Presidency, er ports diverting the rest. Only in Southern India is trade y distributed along the coast-line. From Goa to Cochin on the ar coast are several ports accessible in fair weather, Calicut the chief; but on the Coromandel coast there is no very safe r or navigable estuary. Cocanada is the best and safest port s coast. Chittagong in Bengal exports tea to a much larger than formerly, owing to improved railway facilities, and also hile it imports oil. In Burma, Moulmein exports teak and hile Akyab and Bassein export chiefly rice.

rt Trusts.—At Calcutta, Bombay, Rangoon, Karachi, Madras, hittagong, the affairs of the ports are administered by Port s invested by law with wide powers, though their proceedings ubject to Government control. At all the ports the Europeans he boards largely outnumber the natives. The Indian Ports of 1889 (as amended) fixes the maximum port dues, but the

Provincial Governments do not necessarily levy the full rates, are about 4 annas (4d. or 8 cents) per ton in India, and rather in Burma. The port authorities are also authorized to char for pilotage, hauling, mooring, removing, hooking, measuri other services, at rates fixed by the Provincial Governments. Acts for the different chief ports deal with the dues, rates charges, and rents for the provision and maintenance of w quays, stages, jetties, piers, warehouses, appliances, etc., for sh and landing goods. All information as to the elaborate sca port dues and charges and pilotage fees can be obtained by ap to the port officer of each port.

Harbours.—Calcutta is situated on the left bank of the H (Hugli), about eighty miles from the sea. Pilots can take u of 5,500 tons, drawing up to 27 feet of water, but it is wel they should not exceed 510 feet in length. The port extend ten miles along the Hooghly, and moorings are laid down fo large vessels. There are two wet-docks at Kidderpur (basin acres, and inner dock of 33 acres), having a depth of 32 f high-water springs, and a width of 32 feet at the entrance. docks will take the largest vessels, and there is no difficul getting a berth. Steamers usually discharge at the jetties the moorings, and go into Kidderpur Dock to load. There eight jetties where vessels load or discharge, especially the l There are ten graving or dry docks, ranging from 225 feet t feet in length. The dry-docks will take in the largest v afloat. The most extensive is Kidderpur, with a depth of 25 f high-water springs. There is an ample supply of fixed and flo cranes. The draught of water for vessels leaving Calcutta is us limited to 23 feet, but no absolute rule can be laid down, Hooghly is constantly altering its channel. The intricate navi is managed by Government pilots. Various channels throu Sunderbunds connect Calcutta with the Brahmaputra, wh Hooghly itself and the Nadia rivers connect it with the Ga With Goalundo on the Brahmaputra, where steamer traffic be it is linked by railway. A bridge across the Hooghly con Calcutta with the important railway and manufacturing subu Howra. South of Calcutta lie the small ports of Diamond Har on the Hooghly estuary, and Canning Town, on the Matla estu

Bombay, built on a small island, is the first important por

coming to India through the Suez Canal. It has a very lious and extensive natural harbour—12 to 14 miles long, to 6 miles wide—which is safe for large ocean steamers in thers. There are two wet-docks, the Prince's, of 30 acres, e Victoria, of 25 acres. The former has two entrances, and 55 feet wide, and the depth on the sills is about at high-water springs. Prince's Dock has a berthage of feet, and every appliance for working cargo. Victoria Dock red from Prince's Dock, and has a berthage of 7,425 feet, of entrance 80 feet, and depth at high-water springs about . There are eight dry-docks. Of these the Merewether Dry- 57 feet in length, 65 feet in width, and having a depth of 8 feet at high-water springs—can be used whatever the the tide. Bombay has ample cranage, and extensive quays arves. There is an installation pier for discharging bulk ractically, Bombay Harbour has unlimited accommodation. nd stores can be obtained, and all kinds of repairs effected. e is compulsory on entry and departure.

achi (Kurrachee) is situated in a small bay to the west of the of the Indus. Its harbour is artificial, formed on the west by eakwater running south-east to a distance of 1,500 feet from a Point (a low, sandy isthmus connecting it with the main and sland), and on the east by Kiamari Island, and the groyne or tending from it nearly one and three-quarter miles in a south- asterly direction. The harbour covers 121 acres, with a f 20 feet and upwards at low water. It has also 580 acres of round for native craft. In the entrance channel the depth at ater spring-tides is about 33 feet. The largest vessels can luring the period October to April, but during the south-west n the draft is about 27 feet. In Karachi Harbour there are nchorages, viz., Deepwater, Manora, and Kiamari. Deep- as two swinging moorings, one for a vessel drawing 22 feet, er for a vessel of 24 feet draft. Manora has a dry-dock of t, and seven swinging moorings for vessels of 16 to 22 feet Between Manora and Kiamari there are four head and stern s for vessels of 16 to 22 feet draft. The anchorage of i is used for vessels which are going alongside Merewether here are two swinging moorings with 12 to 20 feet of water, draulic cranes on the wharves. Merewether Pier is 312 feet

long. The Erskine Wharf, 2,010 feet long, has accommoda five of the largest vessels.

Madras has an artificial harbour consisting of two moles, will accommodate several steamers of 13 to 14 feet draft. Anc in the roads is exposed to both monsoons, and at times carg is impossible. Inside the harbour is a screw pile pier for and shipping cargo. The work is somewhat slow, and depen the weather. Harbour extensions and improvements are pro

Rangoon, situated 22 miles up the Rangoon River, gives ac vessels of the largest tonnage. The depth at spring-tides is 30 feet. There are eleven berths and wharves and jetties cranes, a gridiron, and a patent slip. Extensive improvem under discussion. Rangoon is the port of the Irrawaddy V It may be said generally that vessels of any draft up to 2 the Suez Canal draft—can enter the five chief ports.

The length of the voyage from the chief ports to England United States is approximately as follows:

Calcutta to London and Liverpool			32	days ;	New York	40 d
Madras	„	„	29	„	„	37
Bombay	„	„	24	„	„	32
Karachi	„	„	27	„	„	35
Rangoon	„	„	27	„	„	35

Tonnage cleared.—The table on p. 51 shows the numb tonnage of vessels cleared with cargoes and in ballast from all ports for foreign countries, distinguishing steamers and vessels, and steamers which proceeded viâ the Suez Canal.

Shipping Companies:

The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company Leadenhall Street, London, E.C.; loading berth, Royal Docks). Steamers run on regular services from London to Bombay, and fortnightly to Calcutta. There is commu with Karachi, Mangalore, Cannanore, Calicut, Cochin, and T viâ Bombay, with Rangoon viâ Calcutta, and with Neg Madras, Masulipatam, Cocanada, and Vizagapatam viâ C There are services fortnightly from Bombay to the Straits and Japan. Additional sailings as required.

British India Steam Navigation Company, Limited, has mail services along the Indian coast (London agents: Gray,

VESSELS CLEARED WITH CARGOES AND IN BALLAST.

ssels.	1896-7.		1897-8.		1898-9.		1899-1900.		1900-1.	
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage
rgoes :										
.. ..	1,926	3,078,441	1,930	3,084,910	2,337	3,938,474	2,168	3,674,339	2,155	3,698,238
g.. ..	2,363	456,364	2,236	517,461	2,025	466,487	1,652	350,143	1,607	209,831
al ..	4,289	3,534,805	4,166	3,602,371	4,362	4,404,961	3,820	4,024,482	3,762	3,908,069
ast :										
.. ..	150	200,220	136	180,619	106	74,188	165	98,421	160	117,012
g.. ..	495	79,571	482	84,479	303	53,311	148	34,235	148	19,107
l ..	645	279,791	618	264,498	409	127,499	313	132,656	308	136,119
m	2,076	3,278,661	2,066	3,264,929	2,443	4,012,662	2,333	3,772,760	2,315	3,815,250
ng.. ..	2,858	535,935	2,718	601,940	2,328	519,798	1,800	384,378	1,755	228,938
rand Total	4,934	3,814,596	4,784	3,866,869	4,771	4,532,460	4,133	4,157,138	4,070	4,044,188
ers viâ Suez l	787	1,823,784	758	1,790,223	1,004	2,341,220	875	2,132,830	808	2,010,787

o., 23, Great Winchester Street, E.C.). Fortnightly service London viâ Marseilles, Naples (optional), and Colombo to s and Calcutta. Occasional steamers to Karachi, Bombay, ie Persian Gulf ports. Other services are as follows : Calcutta goon and Moulmein, and back direct, weekly. Calcutta to n and back direct, weekly. Calcutta to Rangoon, Penang, gapore, weekly. Calcutta to Chittagong, Arakan, and Burma, . Calcutta to Northern coast ports, Madras, Ceylon, Malabar nd Bombay, weekly. Calcutta and Bombay (coasting), weekly, extra steamers. Calcutta to Singapore and Australia, four- . Calcutta to Colombo, Mauritius, and back, four-weekly. a to Mombassa and Zanzibar, viâ Aden, four-weekly ; also to occasionally. Calcutta to Rangoon, Straits, and Manila, weekly. Calcutta to Madras, Colombo, Naples, Plymouth,

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and London, fortnightly. Madras to Calcutta direct, fortn
and viâ coast ports, weekly. Madras to Rangoon direct, w
and to Northern Coromandel ports, Rangoon, and Mou
weekly. Madras to Rangoon, Singapore, and Manila, three-w
Madras to Southern ports, Penang, and Singapore, fortn
Madras to Ceylon, Malabar ports, and Bombay, weekly. Ma
Colombo, Aden, Naples, and London, fortnightly. Rang
Calcutta, thrice weekly. Rangoon to Akyab, Chittagon
Calcutta, weekly. Rangoon to Tavoy and Mergui, weekly.
goon to Moulmein, four times a week and once a for
Rangoon to Penang and Singapore, weekly. Rangoon to
and Negapatam, weekly. Rangoon to Singapore and Manila,
weekly, and to Australia, viâ Singapore, six-weekly. Rang
Northern Coromandel ports and Madras, weekly. Rang
Colombo, Coromandel and Malabar ports, and Bombay,
Bombay to Karachi, Persian Gulf ports, and Baghdad, w
Bombay to Karachi viâ Kathiawar coast ports, weekly. B
to Karachi direct, bi-weekly. Bombay to Malabar coast
Ceylon, Coromandel coast ports, and Calcutta, weekly. Bo
to Mombassa and Zanzibar viâ Aden, four-weekly; also to
occasionally. Bombay to Zanzibar, Ibo, Pemba Bay, Mozam
Beira, and Delagoa Bay, four-weekly. Bombay to Mauritius,
weekly. Bombay to Red Sea ports, viâ Aden, occasionally. K
to Bombay direct, tri-weekly. Karachi to Colombo, M
Calcutta, and other ports, viâ Bombay, weekly. Tutico
Colombo, daily. Negapatam to Penang and Singapore, fortni
and to Colombo, bi-weekly. The company runs numerous
steamers as trade requires.

Anchor Line (Henderson Brothers). Regular services from Gl
and Liverpool to Bombay fortnightly, returning viâ Mar
and to Calcutta fortnightly, returning usually viâ London.

City Line (Allan Bros. and Co.). Regular services from
and Liverpool to Calcutta about fortnightly; and to Bom
Karachi about monthly.

Clan Line Steamers (Cayzer, Irvine and Co.). Regular s
from Glasgow and Liverpool to Bombay, fortnightly, and to
and Calcutta, fortnightly.

Harrison Line. Regular services from Liverpool to Calcutta
fortnightly.

Line. Regular services from Glasgow and Liverpool to and Karachi, fortnightly.

lebank Line. Regular services from Liverpool to Calcutta, ekly.

n Line. Steamers from Hull to Bombay and Karachi, about ree weeks.

Line (Bibby Brothers and Co.). Liverpool viâ Marseilles to bo and Rangoon and back, fortnightly. Also to Southern viâ Colombo and Tuticorin.

Henderson and Company's Line. Glasgow and Liverpool to , about fortnightly, returning to London or Liverpool and

all Steamship Lines. Regular services from Calcutta to ork and back.

l Transport and Trading Company. Carries petroleum from m, United States, Straits Settlements, and Borneo to India, ndian produce to European ports.

mpagnie des Messageries Maritimes de France, French mail line, steamers from Marseilles to Bombay direct every twenty- days, and steamers from Bombay to Colombo in connection the Australian liners. There are branch lines from Bombay arachi, and from Colombo to Pondicherry, Madras, and tta.

trian Lloyd's. Monthly mail service from Trieste to Karachi ombay, and thence to Kobe (Japan) for part of year, return- Calcutta, Rangoon, Bombay, or Karachi. There is also a y service to Bombay, Rangoon, and Calcutta. A winter is established from Trieste to Karachi and Bombay, some rs going to Rangoon and Calcutta. There is also a branch om Bombay to Shanghai viâ Singapore and Hong Kong. steamers are occasionally despatched. Full details cannot be n a brief space.

gazione Generale Italiana (Florio-Rubattino). Monthly service enoa and Naples to Bombay and back; also from Bombay to pore and Hong Kong monthly.

sa Line (Bremen). Fortnightly to and from Madras and tta; fortnightly to and from Karachi and Bombay; and -weekly to Rangoon.

man East Africa Line. Fortnightly service between Bombay

and Mombassa, Zanzibar, and East and South African Eight-weekly services from Rangoon to same ports.

Nippon Yusen Kaisha Line. Monthly service from Yokoha Hong Kong to Bombay and back viâ Tuticorin and Hong whence there is a fortnightly service to Seattle.

Bombay and Persia Steam Navigation Company. Service Bombay and Persian Gulf and Red Sea ports.

Natal Line of Steamers (Durban, Natal). Direct fortn service between Calcutta, Madras, Ceylon, and Cape ports, Delagoa Bay, Beira, and East African ports. Regular th service between South and East African and Chinese and J ports, Singapore and Penang viâ Calcutta.

Indo-China Steam Navigation Company, Limited. Steamer Calcutta to Hong Kong and Shanghai.

'China' Steamers. Regular service from Calcutta to P Singapore, and Hong Kong.

Archibald Currie and Company's Australian and Indian Steamers to Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Fiji.

Besides the coasting steamers of the British India Company, are many other coasting vessels. The Asiatic Steam Navig Company has a fortnightly service from Calcutta to the Ma coast ports and Bombay, and from Bombay to Calcutt weekly service from Calcutta to Rangoon; a weekly service Calcutta to Arakan; and a regular service from Calcutta Andamans, with some extra vessels. Bombay has a large n of small ships trading with the Persian Gulf and with the A and African coasts, while Madras has many small nativ running to Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. The Steam Navigation Company of Calcutta has a daily servic Goalundo to Dibrugarh (Assam) on the Brahmaputra. The Irra Flotilla Company has a service of steamers on the Irrawad all its navigable tributaries; its steamers run to Mandal Bhamo. River services are maintained by the Hooghly S Company, and also by the India General Navigation and I Company on the Bengal and Assam rivers.

Freight Rates.—It is difficult to furnish satisfactory in tion under this head, as freights vary with ports, seasons, c vessel, and many other circumstances. But recent rates have roughly as follows to and from England (or Europe):

ts into India.—Cotton piece-goods, iron and steel, 20s. per
rdware and cutlery, 22s. 6d. per ton; sugar from Hamburg,
l from Trieste, 17s. per ton; salt, 14s. per ton; general
lise, 25s. per ton.

s from India.—Rice, raw jute, and oilseeds, 22s. 6d. per ton;
1s. 3d. per ton; hides and skins, 40s. per ton; jute goods,
ton; tea, 37s. 6d. per ton; indigo, 60s. per ton; general
lise, 45s. per ton.

CHAPTER VI.

CUSTOMS TARIFF AND REGULATION

Indian Tariff Act, with Amendments in 1896 and 1899—Special impor 5 per cent. duty—3½ per cent. duty—1 per cent. duty—Free list duty—Countervailing duties—Customs administration—Sea Cust 1878—Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889—Petroleum Act, 1 preferential treatment.

Indian Tariff Act.—The Customs duties at present levied in are imposed under the Indian Tariff Act of 1894 as amend 1896. The list of special import duties practically represent whole tariff which was in force from 1882 to 1894. In the latter the financial exigencies of Government necessitated additions t tariff. The new duties imposed were at the rate of 5 per cen *valorem* on imports generally, but on most classes of iron and the duty was fixed at 1 per cent., and a few articles were exe from duty. The duty on cotton manufactures was fixed at cent. in 1896. The only export duty is that on rice. The are levied purely for revenue purposes, and are not intended protective.

In 1899, owing to the heavy imports of bounty-fed beet sug Indian Tariff Act was further amended, and it was enacte 'where any country, dependency, or colony pays or bestows, or indirectly, any bounty or grant upon the exportation the of any article, and the article is chargeable with duty und provisions of this Act [*i.e.*, the Indian Tariff Act of 1894 upon the importation of any such article into British India, w the same is imported directly from the country of produc otherwise, and whether it is imported in the same condition a exported from the country of production or has been char

by manufacture or otherwise, the Governor-General in may, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, impose an l duty equal to the net amount of such bounty or grant, he same may be paid or bestowed.'

lowing is a list of the

SPECIAL IMPORT DUTIES.

	Tariff Valuation.	Rate of Duty.
MUNITION, AND MILITARY STORES		R. A. £ s. d. $ c.
rms and parts thereof):		
arms other than pistols	Each	50 0=3 6 8=16 67
els for the same, whether single or		
ple	,,	30 0=2 0 0=10 0
ls	,,	15 0=1 0 0= 5 0
ls for the same, whether single or		
e	,,	10 0=0 13 4= 3 33
gs used for firearms	,,	8 0=0 10 8= 2 67
tocks, sights, blocks, and rollers ..	,,	5 0=0 6 8= 1 67
olver breeches, for each cartridge		
y will carry	,,	2 8=0 3 4= 0 83
xtractors, nippers, heel-plates, pins, crews, tangs, bolts, thumb-pieces, triggers, trigger-guards, hammers, pistons, plates, and all other parts of a firearm not herein otherwise provided for, and all tools used for cleaning or putting together or loading the same .	,,	1 8=0 2 0= 0 50
Machines for making, loading, or closing cartridges	,,	10 0=0 13 4= 3 33
Machines for capping cartridges . ..	,,	2 8=0 3 4= 0 83

1.—No duty in excess of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* shall be levied upon any of the les mentioned in the above list when they are imported in reasonable quantity, for wn private use, by any person lawfully entitled to possess the same.

2.—When any of these articles which have been otherwise imported, and upon which has been levied or is leviable, are purchased retail from the importer by a person lly entitled as aforesaid, in reasonable quantity, for his own private use, the importer pply to the Customs Collector for a refund or remission (as the case may be) of so of the duty thereon as is in excess of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*; and if such collector is ed as to the identity of the articles, and that such importer is in other respects ed to such refund or remission, he shall grant the same accordingly.

n I.—Articles falling under the 5th, 6th, 9th, or 10th head of the above list, they appertain to a firearm falling r the 1st or 3rd head, and are fitted into ame case with such firearm	..	Free.
n II.—Arms forming part of the ar equipment of an officer entitled to diplomatic, military, or police uniform	..	Free.
powder, all sorts .. .. other sorts of arms, ammunition, and ilitary stores	*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.
:		
er, and porter .. .. nd other fermented liquors	Per Impl. gal. or 6 quart bottles.	R. A. d. c. 0 1=1=2
which has been rendered effectually and permanently unfit for human consumption	*Ad valorem.*	5 per cent.
when used in drugs, medicines, or chemicals in a proportion less than 20 per cent. of spirit of the strength of London proof	,,	,,

SPECIAL IMPORT DUTIES—*continued.*

	Tariff Valuation.	Rate of
Spirit when so used in a proportion of 20 per cent. and upwards	Per Impl. gal. or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof.	R. 6 = 10s. and the increased in propor strength exceeds o London pr
,, perfumed, in wood or in bottles ..	Per Impl. gal. or 6 quart bottles.	R. A. s. 8 0=10
,, other sorts..	Per Impl. gal. or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof.	R. 6, and t be increas duced in pr the strengt spirit exce less than proof.
Wines :		
Champagne and all other sparkling wines	Per Impl. gal. or 6 quart bottles.	R. A. £ s. 2 8=0 3
All other sorts not containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit	,, ,, ,,	1 0=0 1
Liqueurs	,, ,, ,,	6 0=0 10 0
OPIUM (not covered by a Government pass) ..	Per ser of 2$\frac{1}{17}$ lbs. avoirdupois.	24 0=1 12 0=
PETROLEUM with flashing-point below 200° Fahrenheit (including also naphtha and the liquids commonly known by the names of rock oil, Rangoon oil, Burma oil, kerosene, paraffin oil, mineral oil, petroline, gasoline, benzol, benzoline, benzine, and any inflammable liquid which is made from petroleum, coal, schist, shale, peat, or any other bituminous substance, or from any products of petroleum)	Per Impl. gal.	1 A. =1d.=2
SALT	Per Indian maund of 82$\frac{2}{7}$ lbs. avoirdupois weight.	The rate at wh cise duty is time being lev salt manufac the place wh import takes viz. (at presen 1902) R. 1 (=1 33 c.) in Bur R. 2·8 (=3s. 4d elsewhere.
SALTED FISH (wet or dry)	Indian maund of 82$\frac{2}{7}$ lbs. avoirdupois weight.	6 A. (=6d.=1

The following is a list of other articles chargeable with dut
the bulk of these articles a tariff valuation is fixed, alteration
valuations being made whenever any sufficiently important
occur in the market values of the commodities. It is u
publish a revised list of tariff valuations about once a yea
appears in the *Gazette of India* and is reprinted as a

The list may be obtained on application to the Secretary, nd Commerce Department, Government of India, Calcutta.

General Duty of 5 per Cent. ad Valorem.

les of Food and Drink.

nd Vegetables (except fresh etc.).
and Aerated Waters and all lcoholic Beverages.
ns, Oilmen's Stores and Gro-

cluding saccharine produce kinds and confectionery (in n to countervailing duties, if

iemicals, Drugs, Etc.

l Products and Preparations ding explosives).
Medicines, and Narcotics.
and Tanning Materials.

tals and Manufactures of Metals.

ware and Cutlery, including iron- gery and plated ware, and also ding machines, tools, and im- ents to be worked by manual or al labour [*except* water-lifts, r-mills, oil-presses, and parts of, and any other machines and of machines ordinarily used in sses of husbandry, or for the ration for use or for sale of products of husbandry which Governor-General in Council by notification in the *Gazette dia*, exempt, also the following es used in the manufacture of n, viz.: bobbins (warping), for looms, healds, heald cords, knitting needles, laces, lags needles for dobbies, pickers o and others), picking bands, g levers, picking sticks (over under), reed pliers, reeds, s (for power looms), springs ms, strappings, weft forks, hich are free].
Unwrought and Wrought, in- silver bullion and coin, wire- and Articles made of Metal.

Oils.

Oils of all sorts, animal, vegetable, and mineral, including petroleum with flashing point at or above 200° Fahrenheit, for use exclusively for batching of jute or other fibre, for lubricating purposes, or for fuel.
Paraffin Wax.

Other Articles.

Apparel, including drapery, haberdashery, and millinery.
Amber and Articles made of Amber.
Art, Works of.
Beads (of all materials except glass and brass).
Brushes and Brooms.
Building and Engineering Materials (viz., asphalt, bricks and tiles, cement, fireclay, lime, earthenware piping, etc.).
Cabinet Ware and Furniture.
Candles.
Canes and Rattans and Basket-work.
Carriages and Carts, including motor cars, cycles, jinrikshas, bath-chairs, perambulators, trucks, etc., and component parts thereof.
Chinese and Japanese Ware, including lacquered ware.
Clocks, Watches, etc., and parts thereof.
Coir and Articles made thereof.
Coral, Real.
Cordage, Rope, and Twine of any vegetable fibre.
Cork and Articles made of Cork.
Earthenware (except piping), China, China-clay, Porcelain, and Imitation or False Coral.
Fans.
Feathers.
Fireworks, including fulminating powder.
Flax and Articles made of Flax, including linen thread.
Furniture, Tackle, and Apparel, not otherwise described, for steam and other vessels.
Glass, Glassware, and False Pearls.
*Gums, Gum Resins, etc., and Articles made thereof (including caoutchouc, etc.).

* See exceptions under 1 per cent. duty or free list.

GENERAL DUTY OF 5 PER CENT. AD VALOREM (*continued*).

Hemp and Articles made therefrom.
Hides and Skins, except raw or salted, which are free.
Horn, Articles made of, not otherwise described.
Instruments, Apparatus, and Appliances, and parts thereof: Computing, dental, distilling, diving, drawing, educational, electric, electric lighting, galvanic, measuring, musical, optical, philosophical, phonographic, photographic (including materials for photography), scientific, surgical, surveying, telegraphic, telephonic, typewriters, and all other sorts, *except* telegraphic instruments and apparatus and parts thereof, when imported by or under the orders of a railway company, and any instruments, apparatus, and appliances when imported as part of personal baggage in the exercise of a profession or calling, which are free.
Ivory and Ivory-ware.
Jewellery and Jewels, including manufactures of gold and silver.
Jute manufactures (except second-hand or used gunny bags, which are free).
Lac and Articles made of Lac.
Leather and Articles made of Leather, including boots and shoes, harness and saddlery, but excluding belting.
Matches.
Mats and Matting.
Oilcloth and Floor-cloth, including linerusta, linoleum, and tarpaulins.
Paints, Colours, Painters' and Compositions for appl leather, wood, and *metals*.
Paper, Pasteboard, Millboa Cardboard, *of all kinds*, and made thereof.
Pipes, etc., for consuming narc
Perfumery.
Pitch, Tar, and Dammer.
Seeds.
Shells and Cowries.
Silk and Articles made of Silk
Sizing.
Soap.
Stationery.
Stone and Marble, and Artic thereof.
Straw-plaiting and Articles Straw.
Tallow and Grease, including s
Textile Fabrics, not otherwi scribed.
Toilet Requisites, not otherw scribed.
Toys, Toy-books, and Requisites Games.
Umbrellas, Parasols, and Sunsha all kinds.
Walking-sticks and Sticks for brellas, etc., Whips, Fishing and Lines.
Wax and Articles made of Wax
Wood and Timber, and Articles of Wood, not otherwise descri
Wool, Articles made of, inc felt.
All other Articles not specifie or hereafter.

DUTY OF 3½ PER CENT. AD VALOREM.

Cotton Piece-Goods, Hosiery, and all other Manufactured Cotton Goo otherwise described.
(A corresponding Excise duty is levied on the products of Indian cotton-m

DUTY OF 1 PER CENT. AD VALOREM.

Iron: anchors and cables; angle, T, and channel; bar; nail, rod, and round rod; beams, joists, pillars, girders, bridgework, and other descriptions of iron imported exclusively for building purposes; plate and sheet; flat, square, and bolt; hoop; nails; nuts and bolts; old; pig; pipes and tubes, including fittings therefor, such as bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, etc.; rails, sleepers, chairs, dog-spikes, and fish-plates oth those exempt as railway m switches, crossings, lever-box and tiebars; rice bowls; galvanized; rivets and wire, including fencing- wire-rope, but excluding wi
Steel: angle, channel, and anchors and cables; bar an basic, all sorts (including or tinned sheets); beam pillars, girders, bridgew

DUTY OF 1 PER CENT. AD VALOREM (*continued*).

escriptions of steel imported
ively for building purposes;
and blistered; hoop; nails;
and bolts and nail rods; old;
and tubes, and fittings there-
ich as bends, boots, elbows,
sockets, flanges, etc.; plates and sheets; rails, sleepers, chairs, dog-spikes, and fish-plates other than those exempt as railway materials, switches, crossings, lever-boxes, clips and tiebars; rivets and washers; T-bars; wire, excluding wire-netting; wire-rope.

FREE LIST.

Living (horses, etc.).

ES OF FOOD AND DRINK.

l Vegetables, fresh.
Pulse, not including flour.
s, Shark-fins, Singally and

RUGS AND NARCOTICS.
and other Alkaloids of Chin-

Unmanufactured.

LS AND MANUFACTURES OF METALS.

ery, namely prime-movers, and
onent parts thereof, including
rs and component parts thereof;
including locomotive and port-
engines, steam-rollers, fire-
nes, and other machines in
h the prime mover is not
able from the operative parts.
ery (and component parts
of), meaning machines or sets of
nes to be worked by electric,
water, fire, or other power
ing manual or animal labour,
ich before being brought into
quire to be fixed with reference
her moving parts; and in-
g Belting of all materials for
g machinery.
vided that the term does not
le tools and implements to be
d by manual or animal labour,
rovided also that only such
s shall be admitted as com-
t parts of machinery as are
ensable for the working of the
nery, and are, owing to their
r to other special quality, not
l for any other purposes.
.—Machinery and component
hereof made of substances
an metal are included in
y. Dynamos, accumulators,
and electric fans are treated
nery.

Gold Bullion and Coin.
Lead Sheets for Tea-chests.
Railway Material for permanent-way and rolling-stock, namely, cylinders, girders, and other material for bridges, rails, sleepers, bearing and fish plates, fish-bolts, chairs, spikes, crossings, sleeper fastenings, switches, interlocking apparatus, brake gear, couplings and springs, signals, turn-tables, weigh-bridges, engines, tenders, carriages, waggons, traversers, trollies, trucks, and component parts thereof; also cranes and water-cranes, water-tanks, and standards, wire, and other material for fencing, when imported by or under the orders of a railway company:

Provided that for the purpose of this exemption 'railway' means a line of railway subject to the provisions of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, and includes a railway constructed in a Native State under the suzerainty of His Majesty, and also such tramways as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, specifically include therein.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Bamboos, etc.
Books, printed, etc.
Bristles and Fibre for brushes and brooms.
Coal, Coke, and Patent Fuel.
Cotton, Raw.
Cotton, Twist and Yarn.
Cotton, Sewing Thread.
Earth, Common Clay and Sand.
Frankincense or Olibanum.
Horn.
Jute, Raw.
Manures of all kinds, including animal bones.
Oilcake, Bran, and Cattle Food of all kinds.

FREE LIST (*continued*).

Pearl, Mother of, Nacre.
Plants and Bulbs.
Precious Stones and Pearls, Unset.
Printing and Lithographic Materials, including presses, type, ink, etc., but excluding paper.
Pulp of Wood, Straw, Rags, Paper, etc.
Rags.
Ships and other Vessels impor or in sections.
Specimens, Natural Science, in antique coins and medals.
Tea-chests of Metal or Wood or in sections.
Tea-withering Racks.
Wool, Raw.

EXPORT DUTY.

Rice, husked or unhusked (including rice-flour) per maund of 82⅔ lb. av 3 A. (= 3d. or 6 c.).

COUNTERVAILING DUTIES ON BOUNTY-FED SUGAR (in add general duty of 5 per cent.).

These duties are variable, being altered in accordance with change rates of bounty granted. Sugars from Austria-Hungary and Germany a affected at present, but countervailing duties are also leviable on sugars Argentine Republic, Belgium, Chile, Denmark, France, Holland, and R

Customs Administration.—The Indian Customs adminis is conducted with fairness and with a desire to avoid fricti vexation. The following pages deal with the chief enact regulating the Customs.

The Sea Customs Act, 1878 (as subsequently amend This Act contains 207 sections, and therefore only some of the important points can be noticed here.

Section 18.—None of the following goods shall be importe British India: Goods having a counterfeit trade-mark or trade description (see Merchandise Marks Act, p. 65 volume); goods made or produced beyond the limits of the Kingdom and British India, and having applied thereto an or trade-mark being, or purporting to be, or being a col imitation of, the name or trade-mark of any person wh manufacturer, dealer, or trader, in the United Kingdom British India—unless (1) the name or trade-mark is inv accompanied by a definite indication of the goods having bee or produced in a place beyond the limits of the United King British India; (2) the country in which that place is situat that indication shown in letters as large and conspicuous letter in the name or trade-mark, and in the same lang character as the name or trade-mark; piece-goods, such

ordinarily sold by the length or piece, which (*a*) have not conspicuously stamped in English numerals on each piece the length thereof in standard yards (and a fraction of such a yard) according to the real length of the piece, and (*b*) have been manufactured beyond the limits of India.

Section 19.—Where there is a name on goods identical with, or a colourable imitation of, the name of a place in the United Kingdom or British India, that name, unless accompanied in equally large and conspicuous letters, and in the same language and character, by the name of the country in which such place is situate, shall be treated as if it were the name of a place in the United Kingdom or British India. Goods imported in contravention of these sections may be confiscated, and offenders fined thrice the value of the goods up to a maximum of 1,000 rupees.

Section 21.—Unless otherwise provided by any law in force, goods whereof any article liable to duty forms a part or ingredient shall be chargeable with the full duty which would be payable on such goods if they were entirely composed of such article, or if composed of more than one article liable to duty, then with the full duty which would be payable if such goods were entirely composed of the article charged with the highest rate of duty.

Section 22.—The Governor-General in Council may from time to time, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, fix, for the purpose of levying duties, tariff values of any goods exported or imported by sea, on which Customs duties are by law imposed, and alter any such values fixed by any Tariff Act in force.

Section 23.—The same authority by a similar notification may from time to time exempt any goods imported into, or exported from, British India, or into or from any specified port thereof, from the whole or any part of the Customs duties leviable on such goods.

Section 29.—On the importation into, or exportation from, any Customs port of any goods, dutiable or not, the owner (or his authorized agent) shall, in his bill of entry or shipping bill, state the real value, quantity, and description of such goods to the best of his knowledge and belief. In case of doubt, the owner may be required to produce any invoice, broker's note, policy of insurance, or other document whereby the real value, quantity, or description of any such goods can be ascertained, and to furnish any information possible relating thereto. If the owner declares his inability, from

want of full information, to state the real value or contents of any case, package, or parcel, the Customs collector shall permit him, before entry thereof, to open such case and examine its contents in the presence of a Customs officer, or to deposit it in a public warehouse pending the production of such information.

Section 30.—The 'real value' is (*a*) the wholesale cash price, less trade discount, for which goods of the like kind and quality are sold, or are capable of being sold, at the time and place of importation or exportation, without any abatement or deduction whatever, except (in the case of goods imported) of the amount of the duties payable on the importation thereof; or (*b*), where such price is not ascertainable, the cost at which goods of the like kind and quality could be delivered at such place without any abatement or deduction except as aforesaid.

Sections 31 *to* 41.—If the value of goods chargeable with duty *ad valorem* is correctly stated in the bill of entry or shipping bill, the goods shall be assessed accordingly; but, if undervalued by the owner, they may be detained, and the Government may pay their value as stated in the bill, subsequently offering them for sale. An abatement may be allowed on damaged goods. Tariff-value goods which have deteriorated more than one-tenth of their value before delivery of the bill of entry may be assessed *ad valorem*. No abatement is allowed for damage to spirits or any other articles on which duties are levied on quantity and not on value. The rate of duty and the tariff valuation applicable to any goods imported shall be the rate and valuation in force on the date on which the bill of entry thereof is delivered to the Customs collector. Charges or duties erroneously levied or paid are not refunded unless claimed within three months. The Customs collector, instead of requiring payment of duties, etc., from any mercantile firm or public body at the time when due, may keep with it an account-current. Such account shall be settled at intervals not exceeding one month, and such firm or body shall make a deposit or furnish security sufficient to cover the amount due.

Drawback on re-exports: Sections 42, 43.—When any goods, easily identified, which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and import duties paid thereon, are re-exported by sea to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on a ship proceeding to a foreign port, seven-eighths of such

duties shall be repaid as drawback if the re-exportation be made within two years of the date of importation. Similarly, drawback is allowed on goods exported to another Customs port and thence re-exported, if this is done within three years of first importation.

Transhipment: Section 128.—The Customs collector may, on application by the owner of any goods imported and specially and distinctly manifested at the time of importation as for transhipment to some other Customs or foreign port, grant leave to tranship the same without payment of the duty (if any) leviable at the port of transhipment. A Customs officer shall superintend the removal of such goods from vessel to vessel.

Sections 204, 205.—Rules made (or cancelled) under the Sea Customs Act shall be notified in the official gazette, and thereupon have the force of law.

Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889 (as amended).—Trade-marks include those which are registered in England and those which, whether registered or not, are protected in any British possession or foreign state to which the British law is by Order in Council made applicable. In India no law requires the registration of trade-marks, nor is it the usual practice to register them, but any possessor of a trade-mark may register it at the office of the Registrar of Assurances.

According to the above Act, a mark used for denoting that goods are the manufacture or merchandise of a particular person is called a trade-mark, and a mark used for denoting that movable property belongs to a particular person is called a property-mark. Whoever marks any case, package, or other receptacle containing goods (or movable property) in a manner reasonably calculated to cause a belief that they are the manufacture or merchandise (or property) of a person of whom they are not, is said to use a false trade (or property) mark, and is under pain of fine or imprisonment. Similar penalties are inflicted for counterfeiting any trade-mark or property-mark, or for making a false mark on any receptacle containing goods. A false trade description is one materially untrue, and includes every alteration of a trade description by addition, effacement, or otherwise. A trade description means any indication as to number, quantity, measure, gauge, or weight of any goods; as to the country in which, or the time at which, any goods were made or produced; as to the mode of manufacturing or producing any

goods; as to the material they are composed of; as to any goods being the subject of an existing patent, privilege, or copyright; and the use of any numeral, word, or mark which, according to the custom of the trade, is commonly taken to indicate any of the above matters. The use of a trade description in a way reasonably calculated to lead persons to believe that the goods are the manufacture or merchandise of some other person than of him whose they really are is a false trade description. This includes the application to goods of any false name or initials. A trade description denoting that the lengths of goods are greater than they are is deemed false. A person applies a trade description who applies it to the goods themselves, or to any covering, label, reel, or other thing in or with which the goods are exposed for sale or any purpose of trade or manufacture, who places, encloses, or annexes any such goods in, with, or to any covering, etc., or who uses a trade description in a manner calculated to mislead. A trade description is applied whether it is woven, impressed, or otherwise worked into, or annexed, or affixed to the goods or any covering, etc. The term 'covering' includes any stopper, cask, bottle, vessel, box, cover, case, capsule, frame, or wrapper, while 'label' includes any band or ticket. The penalty for applying a false trade description is fine or imprisonment. Goods with false trade or property marks or trade descriptions may be forfeited.

In the case of goods brought in by sea, evidence of the port of shipment shall be *primâ facie* evidence of the country of production. The Governor-General in Council may provide for the limits of variation as to number, measure, weight, etc., which are to be recognised by the criminal courts as permissible. In the general instructions for the guidance of Customs officers, the following points may be noted. Labels or tickets applied to boxes, cartons, parcels, or other packages, manifestly intended only to enable dealers and others to identify the articles, and not to attract the eye of the purchaser, should not be treated as trade descriptions; but this rule does not apply to a mark or description on the goods themselves, or to a description of quality, or one containing the name of a place, country, manufacturer, or trader, or to a trade-mark. Goods manufactured on the Continent of Europe are to be detained if the manufacturer's name and trade description are in English, unless the name and description are accompanied

with the name of the country of manufacture. Customs officers should detain any goods produced or manufactured beyond the limits of the United Kingdom or of British India which are marked with British or British-Indian names or trade-marks, or so described as to indicate that the goods were produced in those countries, unless such description is accompanied with the name, in conspicuous letters, of the country of manufacture. (See also pp. 62, 63.)

In the ten years to March 31, 1900, about 41 per cent. of the goods detained under the Act were detained owing to the application of false trade-marks or false trade descriptions, 27 per cent. because the country of origin was either not stated or was falsely stated, 32 per cent. for infringement of the provisions as to conspicuous stamping of the length, etc., of piece-goods. Detained goods are generally released on payment of a fine, confiscation being rare.

The Petroleum Act, 1886 (as amended).—Petroleum includes liquids known as rock oil, Rangoon oil, Burma oil, kerosine, paraffin oil, mineral oil, petroline, gasoline, benzol, benzoline, and benzine; any inflammable liquid made from petroleum, coal, schist, shale, peat, or other bituminous substance, or from any product of petroleum; and any liquid or viscous mixture having in its composition any of the liquids aforesaid; but it does not include any oil used ordinarily for lubricating purposes, and having its flashing-point at or above 200° Fahr. 'Dangerous petroleum' is that which has its flashing-point below 76°; but when petroleum on board a ship is declared by the master or by the consignee of the cargo to be of one uniform quality, the petroleum shall not be deemed dangerous if the samples selected have their flashing points, on an average, at or above 73°, and if no sample has its flashing point below 70°. Rules for determining at what ports and places petroleum may be discharged, and various conditions as to samples, storage, etc., are made by the governments of the provinces in which the ports are situated.

No Preferential Treatment.—In India, as in England, the fiscal system is established on a Free Trade basis. There are no bounties to home producers, and no special railway rates or similar advantages are granted for the encouragement of particular home industries.

CHAPTER VII.

COMMUNICATIONS.

Railways—Mileage of chief lines—Gross earnings—Trunk lines—Passenger fares and goods rates—Rivers—Roads—Canals—Tramways—Postal facilities—Telegraphs.

Railways.—By far the most important means of communication in India now are the railways. They are the chief products of British capital and enterprise in India. The mileage of the principal railways open for traffic at the end of 1900 was as follows:—

	Miles.
North-Western	3,608
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India, and Rajputana-Malwa	2,763
East Indian	2,104
Southern Mahratta	1,591
Great Indian Peninsula	1,560
Indian Midland	1,239
Bengal-Nagpur	1,283
Bengal and North-Western	1,223
Oudh and Rohilkund	1,149
Burma	1,124
South Indian	1,110
Eastern Bengal	989
Madras	871
East Coast	808
Nizam's	736
Jodhpore-Bikaner	609
Bhavnagar-Gondal-Junagad-Porbandar	455
Assam-Bengal	436
Other lines	1,049
	24,707

Some of the above are, strictly speaking, systems of railways including many different lines. The great trunk lines are mostly of 5 feet 6 inches (or standard) gauge. Most of the others are of metre gauge, though a few have a still narrower gauge. The greater part of the lines belong to the State, but many of these are worked through the agency of companies. Some lines belong to Native States.

The gross railway traffic earnings have been as follows :—

	£		$
1896	16,908,000	=	84,540,000
1897	17,068,000	=	85,340,000
1898	18,304,000	=	91,520,000
1899	19,609,000	=	98,045,000
1900	21,064,000	=	105,320,000

A great trunk line runs north-west from Calcutta to Delhi and Peshawar, having branches to Bombay from Allahabad and from Agra, and to Karachi from Lahore. The distance from Calcutta to Bombay is 1,400 miles viâ Allahabad and Jubbulpore, and 1,280 miles viâ Asansol and Nagpur. From Calcutta to Karachi is a distance of 1,900 miles. Railway communication between Calcutta and Madras was completed in 1900. There is direct communication (800 miles) between Bombay and Madras. Rangoon, to which there is no railway from India proper, is a distance of 800 miles by steamer from Calcutta.

The passenger fares in India are about 1d. (2 cents) to 1½d. (3 cents) per mile first-class, and ½d. to ¾d. (1 cent to 1½ cents) second-class. There are third and fourth classes used by the natives at very low rates. The maximum goods rates vary from about ¾d. (1½ cents) per ton per mile, to about 2¼d. (4½ cents) per ton per mile according to the class of goods, plus terminal charges, on the State lines. The rates on other lines are usually somewhat higher.

Rivers.—Four great rivers, the Indus, the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and the Irrawaddy, with their tributaries, constitute the chief means of inland navigation. They are especially useful for the transportation of cheap and bulky staples and for slow subsidiary traffic. The Indus carries produce from the Southern Punjab and Sind, and Karachi is its port. The Brahmaputra, with its tributary, the Surma, is the great channel for conveying the produce of

Eastern Bengal and Assam to Calcutta. The main stream is navigable for steamers up to Dibrugarh, 800 miles from the sea. Sirajganj is a busy emporium collecting produce for transport to Calcutta. There is a network of channels through the Sunderbunds, furnishing cheap water transit for bulky produce across the delta to the capital. The Ganges, which has played a great part in the commercial development of Upper India, still carries considerable traffic from the Northern plains to the seaboard. Important centres for cargo boats are Bamanghata, Hugli, and Patna. In Burma the Irrawaddy brings down rice and timber to the chief port, Rangoon. The construction of railways has much affected traffic on the Indus and Ganges, though the rivers often serve as feeders of, and not competitors with, the railways. As regards the Brahmaputra and the Irrawaddy, there is much less competition from the railways. The main channels of the Ganges and Brahmaputra are navigable throughout the year, and in the rainy season they supersede road carriage. The great rivers and their affluents probably afford over 10,000 miles of navigable waterway. The towage of native craft up stream is very slow, and therefore a drawback to river traffic.

Roads are unimportant relatively to railways; but their construction, which has been active only during the last fifty years, has enabled wheeled traffic to be substituted for pack animals, and they have proved useful as feeders for railways. The principal towns are connected by trunk roads, and the main roads are metalled. But out of an estimated total of 160,000 miles of roads, only about 40,000 are metalled. The great trunk road running from Calcutta to Jamrud, on the north-west frontier, is the main artery for cart traffic through the fertile plains of Northern India.

Canals.—The most important canals in India are designed for irrigation purposes, but such canals can often be used for several hundreds of miles by small craft. A few canals have been designed primarily or secondarily for navigation. The Calcutta and Eastern Canals are profitable navigation works, maintaining communication between Calcutta and Eastern Bengal through the Sunderbunds. The Orissa Coast Canal, with the Hidgili Tidal Canal, constitutes a line of communication between Calcutta and Orissa. The Nadia rivers' system in Bengal comprises nearly 500 miles of navigable channel. The Orissa, Sone, and Midnapur Canals in Bengal and the Ganges and Agra Canals in the North-Western Provinces are

used for both navigation and irrigation. In Madras the Buckingham Canal from Madras City to the Kistna Delta is important. Most of the canals constructed primarily for navigation have been unprofitable. Attempts to utilize the larger irrigation canals for navigation have met with little success, because the alignment and level suitable for irrigation are often unsuitable for navigation.

Tramways.—Some of the lighter railways in India are rather in the nature of steam tramways, and there is scope for the further construction of such lines. In some large towns, such as Calcutta and Bombay, there are street tramway systems.

Postal Facilities.—The Indian Post Office provides a cheap and admirable service. There are 13,000 post offices besides 26,000 other letter boxes.

The inland postage rates are as follows: Inland letters, ½ anna (=½d. or 1 cent) for letter not exceeding ½ tola (=3⅓ drams, avoirdupois) and 1 anna (=1d. or 2 cents) up to 1½ tolas (=10 drams), and 1 anna for each additional tola. A post-card costs a pice (=¼d., or ½ cent). Book and pattern packets, ½ anna (=½d., or 1 cent) for every 10 tolas (=4⅓ ounces). Unregistered parcels, 2 annas (=2d., or 4 cents) per 20 tolas (=8¼ ounces) up to 40 tolas and then 2 annas for each additional 40 tolas (=16½ ounces), up to 440 tolas (=11 lbs. 5 ounces). Parcels exceeding 440 tolas must be registered, and are charged 3 rupees (=4s., or $1) up to 480 tolas (=12 lbs. 5½ ounces), and 4 annas (=4d., or 8 cents) for every 40 tolas beyond. Value payable parcels, 2 annas (=2d., or 4 cents) for any sum specified for recovery not exceeding 10 rupees (=13s. 4d., or $3 33c.) 4 annas (4d., or 8 cents) for 10 to 25 rupees (£1 13s. 4d., or $8 33c.), and 4 annas for every 25 rupees additional. Value payable parcels are those of which the post office collects the declared value from the addressee, transmitting the money to the sender by money-order. Under this excellent system the number of articles carried is now about 2,600,000 per annum.

The registration fee is 2 annas (=2d., or 4 cents) for letters, packets, and all other classes of articles sent inland or abroad.

Insurance fees, Rs. 50, 2 annas (=£3 6s. 8d. for 2d., or $16⅔ for 4 cents); Rs. 100, 4 annas; and 4 annas for each additional Rs. 100 up to a maximum of Rs. 2,000.

Inland money orders are issued for sums up to 600 rupees (=£40 or $200). Commission on any sum up to 10 rupees (=13s. 4d., or

$3 33c.), 2 annas (= 2d. or 4 cents), 10 rupees to 25 rupees, 4 annas, and also 4 annas for each additional 25 rupees.

Foreign Postage.—Elementary union rates of postage are adopted by India for correspondence with all parts of the world except the United Kingdom and most of the British Possessions. These rates are: for letters, 2½ annas (= 2½d., or 5 cents) per ½ ounce; for printed papers, ½ anna (= ½d., or 1 cent) for 2 ounces; and the same for business papers, but with a minimum of 2½ annas (= 2½d., or 5 cents); for samples, ½ anna per 2 ounces (minimum, 1 anna). Rate for letters from India to United Kingdom and to nearly all British possessions, 1 anna (= 1d., or 2 cents) for ½ ounce.

Foreign Parcel Post.—Parcels are exchanged by post between India and most foreign countries. Every parcel must be prepaid, and must be accompanied by a Customs declaration in prescribed form. Parcels exceeding 11 pounds and up to 50 pounds are received and delivered by the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company. Transmission by foreign parcel post of any parcel containing coin or bullion exceeding £5 in value, is prohibited. Parcel Post is increasingly used for despatching small articles to India, such as millinery, dresses, gloves, boots, books, etc. There are various restrictions as to size and weight of parcels.

PARCEL POST RATES TO UNITED KINGDOM.

THROUGH POST OFFICE.

Vid Brindisi.

Up to 3 lbs., R. 2 4a. (= 3s.).
Over 3 lbs. up to 7 lbs., R. 3 6a. (= 4s. 6d.).
„ 7 „ „ 11 „ R. 4 8a. (= 6s.).

Vid Gibraltar.

Up to 1 lb., 12 A. (= 1s.).
Over 1 and up to 2 lbs., R. 1 4a. (= 1s. 8d.).
„ 2 „ 3 „ R. 1 12a. (= 2s. 4d.).
„ 3 „ 7 „ R. 2 10a. (= 3s. 6d.).
„ 7 „ 11 „ R. 3 12a. (= 5s.).

Direct, by P. and O. S. N. Co.

For each lb. or fraction thereof, 8a. (= 8d.)

PARCEL POST RATES TO UNITED STATES.

New York City, Brooklyn, Hobocken, and Jersey City vid Italy.

	R.	a.	p.	
Up to 2 lbs.,	3	4	6	(= $1 9c.).
2 to 6 lbs.,	4	6	0	(= $1 45c.).
6 to 11 lbs.,	5	7	6	(= $1 81c.).

Other places in United States (except Alaska).

	R.	a.	p.	
Up to 2 lbs.,	3	14	6	(= $1 29c.).
2 to 6 lbs.,	6	6	6	(= $2 13c.).
6 to 11 lbs.,	8	14	6	(= $3 0c.).

Foreign money orders expressed in sterling may be drawn on the United Kingdom, the United States, and most British Possessions and foreign countries.

Telegraphs.—Over 60,000 miles of wire and cable are maintained by the Telegraph Department, which supervises more than 2,600 railway and canal offices and 1,600 offices worked by the Postal Department. It also supplies telephones to local bodies and to private persons whose requirements are not met by telephone companies. The inland rates are: "ordinary" rate, 1 rupee (= 1s. 4d., or 33 cents), for eight words, and 2 annas (= 2d., or 4 cents) for each additional word; deferred rate, half the ordinary; urgent rate, double the ordinary. Addresses telegraphed free. Telegrams to Europe are 1 rupee 14 annas (= 2s. 6d.) per word viâ Suez or viâ Teheran, and 1 rupee 11 annas (= 2s. 3d.) viâ Turkey. The rates for telegrams to the United States are 3 rupees 8 annas to 3 rupees 11 annas (= $1 16 cents to $1 22 cents) per word viâ Turkey, and from 3 rupees 12 annas to 3 rupees 15 annas (= $1 24 cents to $1 30 cents) viâ Teheran or viâ Suez. Rates from Burma are 4 cents more. The rates for telegrams to Europe have only just been reduced, and under certain conditions a further reduction to 1½ rupees (2s.) per word may be made.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION.

Government revenue with Customs and Post Office receipts—Government debt—Technical education—Trade and traders—Important trade centres—Agents and commercial travellers—Commercial associations—Consuls—Advertising mediums—Suitability of goods and packing—Openings for capital—Works of reference.

Government Revenue.—The gross revenue of the Government of India has been as follows during the last five years:

	£	$
1896-7	62,622,000	= 313,110,000
1897-8	64,257,000	= 321,285,000
1898-9	67,567,000	= 337,835,000
1899-1900	68,637,000	= 343,185,000
1900-1	75,166,000	= 375,830,000

About one-fourth of the total is derived from land revenue, and about one-fourth from railways and irrigation works, the other chief heads being opium, salt, stamps, excise, and customs. The gross receipts from customs and post office have been as follows:—

	Customs.		Post Office.	
	£	$	£	$
1896-7 ...	2,994,000	= 14,970,000	1,189,000	= 5,945,000
1897-8 ...	3,094,000	= 15,470,000	1,253,000	= 6,265,000
1898-9 ...	3,201,000	= 16,005,000	1,276,000	= 6,380,000
1899-00 ...	3,134,000	= 15,670,000	1,308,000	= 6,540,000
1900-1 ...	3,324,000	= 16,620,000	1,354,000	= 6,770,000

The receipts from the Post Office exceeded the expenditure in 1900-01 by about £125,000.

Government Debt.—The debt of the Government of India consists of rupee loans raised in India and sterling loans raised in England, together with miscellaneous obligations. It has been

estimated that about 42 per cent. of the rupee debt is held by natives of India. The following table gives particulars of the permanent debt in India and England for the five years ended 1900-01, with the amount incurred or discharged (by redemption) in each year:

Year.	Permanent Debt in India.		Debt in England.		
			Permanent.	Unfunded (India Bills).	Total.
	Rupees.	= £	£	£	£
1896-7	109,11,50,530	72,743,369	113,883,233	1,000,000	114,883,233
1897-8	111,69,56,340	74,463,756	117,274,680	6,000,000	123,274,680
1898-9	112,65,46,980	75,103,132	119,768,605	4,500,000	124,268,605
1899-00	112,47,47,010	74,983,134	119,644,401	4,500,000	124,144,401
1900-1	115,33,19,058	76,887,937	128,435,379	5,000,000	133,435,379

Year.	Classification of Permanent Debt in India and England.			Net Amount Incurred (— Discharged).	
	Railways.	Irrigation.	Other Purposes.		
	£	£	£	Rupees.	£
1896-7	96,257,842	21,264,761	69,103,999	5,32,61,250	*—1,020,499*
1897-8	98,679,216	21,759,869	71,299,351	2,58,05,810	8,391,447
1898-9	102,045,917	22,212,915	70,612,905	95,90,640	993,925
1899-00	104,485,985	22,840,866	67,300,684	*—17,99,970*	*—124,204*
1900-1	111,676,000	23,461,300	70,186,016	2,85,72,048	8,290,978

Part of the increase in 1900-01 is due to the inclusion of £6,000,000 of debenture stock issued by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company, and taken over by Government when it acquired the line.

The net amount required for the service of the permanent debt and minor obligations in 1900-01 was £6,816,400 ($34,082,000).

It will be observed that the greater part of the debt of India has been incurred for productive purposes, more than one-half being for railways.

For more than forty years there has been no disturbance of the general peace in India. Merchants and others are able to rely on adequate police protection for their persons and property, as well as on the due enforcement of legal obligations by the courts of justice. The low rates of interest on the Government debt furnish ample evidence of the confidence everywhere felt in the stability and permanence of British rule. The latest price quotations of Indian stocks on the London Stock Exchange (February 17th, 1902) are:—

Loans.	Price.	Yield to Buyer.
3½ per cent., sterling.	108	3¼
3 „ „ „	101	3
2½ „ „ „	86¼	3 (nearly)

Technical Education.—The whole subject of education in India is at present under discussion, and there is a tendency to devote more attention to primary and technical education. Already, in fact, a movement in the direction of a more practical education has been visible in the more important position allotted to agriculture, mensuration, sanitary science, and drawing in the primary schools. The science side in secondary schools and arts colleges has increased in popularity, while there has been a steady growth of engineering colleges, art institutions, and industrial schools. Engineering instruction is given at Rurki (Roorkee) in the North-Western Provinces, at Sibpur College in Bengal, and at colleges in Madras, Bombay, and Nagpur. There are schools of art in Calcutta, Lahore (Mayo School), Bombay, and Madras, and the last especially has made considerable progress. Madras possesses the Victoria Technical Institute, while Bombay has the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, including the Ripon Textile School. There are agricultural colleges or schools at Saidapet in Madras, at Nagpur, and at Cawn-

pore. The Poona College of Science gives instruction in science, engineering, and agriculture. Bombay has a veterinary college. In all provinces are industrial schools, and technical training is given in many railway workshops. In 1899-1900 over 800 students were attending the four engineering colleges, while there were 1,150 at thirty engineering and surveying schools, nearly 1,600 at various schools of art, and 3,700 at industrial schools.

Trade and Traders.—Improved communications have greatly developed both the foreign and the internal trade, cheapening transport, equalizing prices, and extending the cultivation of export staples. While Calcutta trade is largely in the hands of Europeans having extensive agencies for the disposal of Indian produce, Bombay trade is more equally shared between European and native merchants. Most of the internal trade of India is in native hands, though Europeans mainly control the foreign shipping business, and have a share in the business of collecting the chief export staples, such as cotton, jute, wheat, and oil-seeds. The export staples are generally sold by the cultivators to travelling brokers, who resell to larger dealers, till eventually the merchandise reaches the agents of the great shipping houses at the central marts. The work of distributing goods and adapting them to the needs of consumers also falls mainly to natives. The Parsees take the lead among native Indians for enterprise in industry and commerce, and they occupy an especially important position in Bombay. Among other trading classes may be named the Baniyas of Gujarat and the Bhattias (Hindus), and the Bohras of Cutch and Kathiawar, who are Mohammedans prominent in the trade of Bombay. The Bhattias deal in most of the leading articles of export, especially cotton and oil-seeds, and they import all kinds of textile goods. In the Deccan are found the Lingayats, while in Bengal and in Bombay the Marwaris of Rajputana occupy an important commercial position. Local trade is centred mainly in the permanent bazaars of the great towns, while business is also done at weekly markets in the villages, at periodical religious gatherings, at annual fairs, and through travelling agents or brokers. In each village may be found at least one resident trader, who usually combines the functions of money-lender, grain-dealer, and cloth-seller.

Important Trade Centres.—In India there are thirty towns with over 100,000 inhabitants, most of which are important commercially or industrially. A few words are necessary on the chief

of these, and on some smaller trade centres. The great port towns have already been dealt with. Howra is the manufacturing suburb of Calcutta. It has jute and cotton mills, factories and foundries. Patna, in Bengal, at the junction of several railway and river routes, is an entrepot for rice, wheat, oil-seeds, opium, and indigo. Allahabad, at the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna, is a great corn and cotton market. Cawnpore is in the forefront of manufacturing enterprise in Upper India, being especially famous for leather goods. It is also an important grain market. Delhi is a large wheat and produce mart, and a great centre for the distribution of foreign goods. Buyers congregate there from the North-West and from other parts of India. It has many banks, European and native, and a large number of merchants, who buy direct from Europe or through Calcutta and Bombay. Moreover, Delhi is a leading railway and industrial centre. Meerut is also an important railway and manufacturing centre. Of towns in the Central Provinces, Nagpur has a cotton industry and a trade in produce, while Jubbulpore, on a trunk railway to the coast, is an important wheat and cotton market. Bangalore, a great military station, has manufactures of silk and cotton goods. Poona, another military station, is important industrially. Shikarpur, in Sind, has a large merchant population carrying on trade with Afghanistan, Persia, etc. The development of the new Nushki route from Quetta to Seistan in Persia should benefit Shikarpur. Hubli and Sholapur in Bombay have set up large cotton factories and railway works, while Ahmedabad has also rapidly developed owing to its cotton industry. Most of these great commercial and industrial towns have grown up through the agency of British capital administered by Englishmen. But the enterprise of the latter has been imitated very successfully by many natives, who are tending more and more to invest their own capital in trade and industry.

Agents and Commercial Travellers.—Business in foreign goods can be transacted most satisfactorily by the establishment of local branches or by the appointment of local agents, who can devote themselves specially and regularly to furthering sales. It is difficult for the foreign manufacturer or merchant to do business directly with native dealers, as experience has often shown. At present trade is mainly carried on by commission agents, who send indents or lists of orders to their principals in Europe or

America. It would doubtless be too expensive to have local agents in all the chief towns, but in the chief ports and in Delhi, Cawnpore, or other great distributing centres, direct representation is highly desirable. The rich native merchants in the bazaars can thus be made acquainted more thoroughly with the prices and qualities of the goods for sale, expenses can be reduced, and articles sold at lower prices. Commercial travellers are not so useful in India as in countries with a more temperate climate. Their operations are practically restricted to the cold season, from the beginning of November to the middle of March, when business is most active in the chief commercial cities. Travellers who desire to do business with the natives should have a good acquaintance with their habits, their methods of bargaining, and their peculiarities, besides some knowledge of native languages. Hindustani will be found a useful language. English, however, will in most cases serve, and catalogues should be printed in that language, though prices should be shown in rupees, annas, and pies. There are no regulations either in British India or in Native States specially affecting commercial travellers, and they are not required to take out licences; moreover, travellers resident in Calcutta are not called upon to pay the municipal licence tax. In Kashmir, however, all Europeans, other than civil and military officers of the British Government, whether they are commercial travellers or not, are required to provide themselves with a pass from the British Resident before entering the Maharaja's territory; and in Nepal the general prohibition against Europeans visiting Nepal without the permission of the Durbar applies to representatives of European firms. With regard to the treatment of commercial travellers' samples and patterns, there are no special regulations in British India; but it may be said generally that import duty is charged on importation and refunded on re-exportation to the extent of seven-eighths, and that samples of no marketable value are exempted from all payment. Wherever octroi is levied, whether in British or in Native India, on merchandise brought into towns, the duty applies to samples of merchandise as to goods generally, if the samples are of taxable value. As regards the treatment accorded to samples of merchandise in Native States, no duty is levied in Gwalior when samples are imported and exported again unsold, and it appears that, generally speaking, the same rule prevails in

all the States of Central India. In cases where the concession is not provided for by existing regulations, it could probably be secured without difficulty by application to the political officer of the State in question. There appear to be no rules for the treatment of commercial travellers' samples in the other Native States of India. The Government of India possesses a discretionary power to prevent any foreigner from residing, or sojourning in, or travelling through, India, including Native States, without its consent, and a proviso reserving such power is attached to commercial treaties to which the Government adheres.

Commercial Associations.—There are Chambers of Commerce in the ports of Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras, Rangoon, and Cochin. Their schedules of commission charges for various services can be obtained on application. There is also a Chamber of Commerce in the Native State of Kathiawar. The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is located at Cawnpore.

The following list of other commercial associations may be useful for reference. Calcutta: Royal Exchange; Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association; and Calcutta Trades' Association. Bombay: Bombay Cotton Trade Association; Bombay Mill Owners' Association; and Bombay Underwriters' Association. Madras: Madras Import Freights Association; Madras Trades' Association. Rangoon: Rangoon Trades' Association.

Consuls.—The interests of India in foreign countries are represented by British Consuls. England, being the paramount power in India, has no consular representation there. The United States has the following consular officers: Calcutta—Consul-General and Deputy-Consul-General, Esplanade Road. Bombay—Consul, Apollo Bunder. Rangoon—Consul. There are also American consular agents at Madras, Karachi, Moulmein, and Chittagong. The appointment of foreign Consuls is restricted to the seaport towns of the provinces under the direct administration of the Government of India, and a stipulation attached to commercial treaties provides for this.

Advertising Mediums.—As English is universally taught, a large number of natives read the papers printed in that language, and therefore the numerous dailies in English are useful for appealing not only to Anglo-Indians, but also to educated natives. The leading organs are as follows:—

Calcutta: *Englishman, Indian Daily News*, and *Statesman and Friend of India.*

Bombay: *Times of India* and *Bombay Gazette.*

Madras: *Madras Mail* and *Madras Times.*

Allahabad: *Pioneer.*

Lahore: *Civil and Military Gazette.*

Rangoon: *Rangoon Gazette* and *Rangoon Times.*

Advertisements in native papers may serve to bring foreign manufacturers into direct connection with Indian dealers, and so facilitate the introduction of foreign goods.

Among special journals are: Calcutta—*The Indian Agriculturist, The Indian Planters' Gazette, The Indian Engineer, Indian Engineering,* and *Capital.* Bombay—*The Indian Textile Journal and Indian Import and Export Trades Journal.* London—*British-Indian Commerce.*

Suitability of Goods and Packing.—It is of great importance that goods sent to India should be adapted to native requirements in quality, shape, colour, style, pattern, and price. They must also be adapted to native prejudices. Cheapness is a prime necessity in most articles of general consumption. Many articles made on the continent of Europe (hardware and cutlery, glass and glassware, etc.) have secured a sale owing to their cheapness. In consequence of wide variations in temperature and rainfall, good packing is essential to resist heat, damp, and vermin. Goods liable to injury from these causes, such as textile fabrics, hardware and cutlery, leather goods, furniture, etc., should not be stored for a long period in India. It is advisable that machinery should be imported in the dry season.

Openings for Capital.—Fluctuations in exchange long hindered the free investment of capital in India; but now that the rupee is fairly established at the rate of 15 rupees to the pound sterling, India has become entitled to the serious attention of capitalists who desire sound industrial investments and not mere speculative business. The cotton and jute manufactures, already conducted on a large scale, offer scope for still further development. Sugar and tobacco are produced in large quantities, but both require the application of the latest scientific processes of cultivation and manufacture. Oil-seeds might be crushed in India instead of being exported, while cotton-seed, as yet imperfectly utilized, can be turned to good account. Hides and skins, now largely exported raw, might be

more largely tanned or dressed in India. Again, the woollen and silk fabrics manufactured in India are mostly coarse fabrics, and there is scope for the production of finer goods. Although railways make their own rolling-stock, they have to import wheels and axles, tyres, and other ironwork. At present steel is manufactured on a very small scale, and the number of iron foundries and machine shops, although increasing, is capable of greater expansion. Machinery and machine tools have for the most part to be imported. Millions of agriculturists and artisans use rude tools, which might be replaced by similar articles that are more durable and of better make. Improved oil-presses and hand-looms should find a profitable market. Paper mills and flour mills might be established in greater numbers. There are openings also for the manufacture of sewing-machines, fireworks, rope, boots and shoes, saddlery and harness, clocks and watches, aniline and alizarine dyes, electrical appliances, glass and glassware, tea-chests, gloves, rice, starch, matches, lamps, candles, soap, linen, hardware, and cutlery.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

Official:

Annual Statement of the Trade and Navigation of British India: Vol. I., Foreign Trade. Price about 4s. 6d. (Vol. II. relates to Coasting Trade.)

Review of the Trade of India (annual), about 4d.

Tables relating to the Trade of British India (annual), about 1s.

Statistical Abstract relating to British India (annual), about 1s. 6d.

(These three volumes are issued in London as Parliamentary Blue-books.)

The Sea-Customs Act, about 2s.

The Indian Merchandise Marks Act, about 7d.

The Petroleum Act, about 8d.

Dictionary of the Economic Products of India, by Dr. G. Watt, C.I.E., 9 vols. with index, £3 6s.

(All the above may be obtained from Messrs. P. S. King and Co., Westminster, London, S.W.)

Non-Official:

Thacker's Indian Directory (Calcutta).

Times of India Directory (Bombay).

Asylum Press Almanack (Madras).

Burma Directory and Diary (Rangoon).

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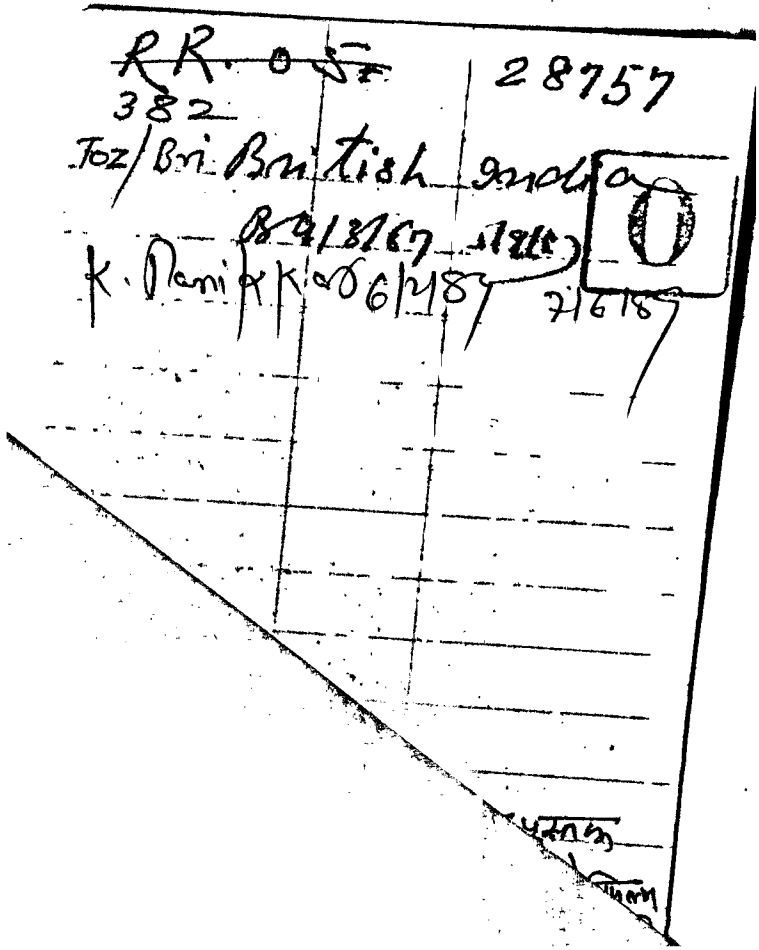
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